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ABSTRACT

This study explores a design for a curriculum model for improving the preparation of teachers for rural schools. It was based on surveys and interviews conducted to assess needs, characteristics, and attitudes of rural communities. The functions and responsibilities of the college administrator were also examined with particular emphasis on the role of the small church-related college in rural education. Results of the surveys are analyzed and models are presented of both administrative organization for rural colleges and curriculum for education majors. (JD)

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DEVELOPING AND ADMINISTERING
A NONMETROPOLITAN TEACHER EDUCATION PROGRAM

A STUDY

Financed by the Advanced Institutional Development Program
West Virginia Wesleyan College
Buckhannon, West Virginia

U S DEPARTMENT OF HEALTH, EDUCATION & WELFARE
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DEVELOPING AND ADMINISTERING
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CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION TO THE PROBLEM

A grant from the Advanced Institutional Development program at West Virginia Wesleyan College was secured for the 1978-1979 school year for the purpose of identifying administrative and program modifications necessary for preparing better teachers for rural schools.

Though more children attend rural schools in this nation than inner city schools, the rural schools have not received a fair share of national attention or financial support (6, pp. 271-282). Even though the literature is in overwhelming agreement that rural schools are inadequate (4, p. 13), few institutions have offered programs to prepare teachers to cope with the inadequacies of rural schools (2, p. 101).

The small church related college, through a quest for transformation and servanthood (5, p. 2), is one institution that is in a position to help bring an end to the long standing neglect of rural education. However, without knowing what has hit them, some small colleges are in the early stages of devastation by a deadly crossfire between advocates of more, and advocates of less, professionalism in teacher education. Weary from efforts to identify institutional uniqueness, America's church related liberal arts colleges are among those hardest hit by the flack between the profes-

sional aspirations of teachers and the concerns of the academic community. Flack from one side comes from members of the teaching profession as they advocate, in their struggle for a more professional stance, a significant increase in the number of professional education courses and a significant decrease in the number of institutions which prepare America's teachers (3, p. 22). Flack from the other side comes from college and university faculty who are recommending, in an attempt to better define a legitimate higher education, a reduction in the amount of professional and vocational courses in undergraduate education (1, pp. 4-7). Because teacher education programs are vital to the survival of many church related colleges (3, p. 19), the cross fire is squeezing their very existence.

Purpose of the Study

The purpose of this study is to determine a curriculum model for the preparation of better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools which is based upon perceived needs and characteristics of rural communities and includes an analysis for administering such a model.

In order that a teacher education program can positively relate and interact with an emphasis on rural life, a comprehensive model for rural emphasis in teacher education is needed. In addition, an analysis of the means for developing and administering such a program are needed. Therefore, this

study calls for the development of a conceptual analysis of the basic elements and concepts of rural studies upon which to design the implementation and administration of a program which will serve the interests of rural education through the preparation of better rural teachers.

Statement of the Problem

This study dealt with two separate but closely related thrusts. The first thrust included a firsthand study of administrative functions at one institution which was conducted during the fall semester of 1978 at Southwestern University in Georgetown, Texas in the form of an administrative internship on the vice presidential level.

The second thrust included a study of the literature dealing with rural education, a survey, a questionnaire, and the development of a proposed curriculum model. The survey took the form of personal interviews. The result of the survey was a questionnaire based upon the comments collected from the survey. Many of the comments were initiated by the interviewer on the basis of a previous study of the literature. Recommendations for teacher education program modifications are based upon the results of this second thrust, as are the hypotheses of the study. The survey was composed of personal interviews. Hypotheses were formulated from the comments received during the personal interviews and were accepted or rejected by means of testing each hypothesis in a statement calling for true-false

responses to the questionnaire.

Hypotheses

Opinions expressed as perceived needs and characteristics, as well as those indicating obvious program changes in Wesleyan's teacher education program in the Nonmetropolitan Educational Survey were formulated into hypotheses and tested against the opinions of a wider group of subjects through the Nonmetropolitan Educational Questionnaire. The following hypotheses were tested in this study:

Program Hypotheses

1. The teacher education program should be increased from four to five years, terminating in a Master's Degree instead of a Bachelor's Degree.

2. An experience in "Student Substitute Teaching" prior to Student Teaching would be a good way for the prospective teacher to learn how to handle student discipline problems and to determine whether teaching is the right profession.

3. Wesleyan should require prospective nonmetropolitan teachers to take a course in rural or Appalachian culture which includes a study of rural food, music, dress, language, art, crafts, social customs, characteristics of the people, etc.

4. College Biology or Psychology for prospective teachers should include training of animals for the purpose of acquiring the necessary patience for disciplining and for learning the basic techniques and principles of reinforcement.

5. Teachers should know how to use fire extinguishers.

6. Teachers should have some knowledge of first aid for children.

7. Wesleyan should recruit prospective teachers from high schools in much the same manner that basketball players are now recruited.

8. Wesleyan should impress upon prospective teachers the importance of professionalism and high public image in both school and non school settings.

9. Teachers should be encouraged to visit parents at home.

10. Teachers should participate in community affairs.

Perceived Needs Hypotheses

11. Teachers should live in the community where they teach.

12. Teachers need to understand the problems and traditions of the community in which they teach.

13. Even during the first three years of school, a wide variety of subjects should be offered.

14. Schools should concentrate on fewer subjects.

15. Schools should attempt to raise children "close to nature" by not only teaching how to get along with, but also how to get along without, modern conveniences.

16. Nonmetropolitan schools should equip children with skills relevant to both rural and urban life.

17. Nonmetropolitan schools recruit highly competent teachers and administrators.

18. Nonmetropolitan teachers hold expectations that are too high for students.

19. Nonmetropolitan schools are prepared to deal with physical and mental handicaps.

20. Schools should work with community values rather than trying to "elevate" the concerns of parents and school boards.

21. Schools should constantly reassess employment situations within the community to determine what kinds of vocational programs are needed and make them available to students.

22. It is important for students to learn social skills in nonmetropolitan schools.

23. In planning the curriculum, nonmetropolitan schools should involve parents, teachers, administrators, and students.

24. Small nonmetropolitan schools are able to gain community support for innovative programs when the community is convinced that the programs or curriculum is both educationally valid and worth the cost.

25. The amount of operating funds and capital that are needed are available to nonmetropolitan schools.

Perceived Characteristics Hypotheses

26. Schools try to do too many things.

27. Schools are not firm enough in student grading policies.

28. A distinguishing mark of nonmetropolitan children is honesty; another is truthfulness.

29. Nonmetropolitan children yearn for intellectual stimulation and greater access to new resources.

30. Nonmetropolitan schools do not have as much trouble with absenteeism and nonenrollment of students as metropolitan schools.

31. Nonmetropolitans would rather send their children to a nonmetropolitan school than to a larger and wealthier metropolitan school.

32. There is a close-knit relationship between home and school in a nonmetropolitan community.

33. Nonmetropolitans prefer more innovative teachers with new methods rather than more "traditional" teachers in their schools.

34. Nonmetropolitan teachers too often use their positions to make a living until more attractive positions are available.

35. Too many nonmetropolitan teachers gossip too much.

36. Nonmetropolitan teachers are watched more closely than are teachers elsewhere.

37. Nonmetropolitan residents place confidence and respect in the school board and its ability to deal with school problems.

38. The present method of financing schools is satisfactory.

39. Nonmetropolitan school districts should be guaranteed a fair share of federal education funds that are now controlled by the state.

40. Nonmetropolitan teachers are highly respected.

Definition of Terms

The term "metropolitan" as used in this study refers to any large city or the suburban area of a large city.

The term "nonmetropolitan" as used in this study refers to any area that is not a metropolitan area.

The term "urban" as used in this study refers to any large city.

The term "suburban" as used in this study refers to the residential and business areas which form a ring around any large city.

The term "large city" as used in this study is purposely left to the respondent for interpretation; however, the respondents were asked to identify their background community sizes as either: (A) over 50,000; (B) 2,500 to 50,000; (C) under 2,500. Few respondents identified their background communities as being over 50,000.

Limitations of the Study

1. This study, in attempting to identify perceived needs and characteristics of rural people, was subject to the limitation imposed by any measurement instrument; detection of perceived needs and characteristics was limited to whatever the measurement instrument was capable of detecting.

2. This study was limited in the selection of subjects to: (A) School teachers supervising West Virginia Wesleyan College student teachers in Upshur and Lewis Counties, West Virginia, (B) selected Methodist ministers in Upshur County, West Virginia,

(C) Parent-Teacher Association officers in Upshur County, West Virginia, selected randomly (D) selected teacher educators from West Virginia Wesleyan College and two other West Virginia Colleges, (E) selected educators from the West Virginia State Department of Education.

3. This study was limited to a predominant choice of rural participants because of the nature of the study.

4. This study was limited to a forty six percent response to the questionnaire.

Basic Assumptions

1. It was assumed that such a study must necessarily be limited, and that many facets of concern to this study were left untouched.

2. It was assumed that there was value in the detection of certain expressed needs and characteristics of a selected group of predominantly rural people, even if other meaningful needs and characteristics were overlooked.

3. It was assumed that the instruments designed for use in the study were adequate to accomplish the purpose for which they were intended.

4. It was assumed that perceived needs and characteristics expressed by the participants were of value in designing a teacher education program with a rural emphasis in a church related college.

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CHAPTER II

SURVEY OF THE LITERATURE

Rural education is a neglected issue. Helping strengthen the rural educational system will involve a transformation of public attitude as well as a transformation of public policy.

Rural people are traditionally self reliant, but they could use help with their schools as much as anybody else. Few, though, seem willing to help. America's small church related colleges are in a position to help in the effort to transform rural education into a better system. The basic religious purpose of transformation through servanthood offers a model for assisting rural communities through leadership from within rather than interference from the outside. An effective model, however, must be sympathetic to current efforts to redefine both the liberal arts and professional education, and must be sensitive to the problems of fitting a professional program into a liberal arts curriculum at this time.

Rural Education

The hostile attitude of outsiders toward rural schools, and of some rural people toward their own schools, has been formed, in part, as a result of a negatively-biased literature. This "bad press" has resulted in an unofficial but near-universal attitude that the answer to the problem is to consolidate rural schools out of existence. No other attitude toward rural education has received such wide spread acceptance as consolidation. When this notion has not provided acceptable

results, rural schools have suffered neglect and condemnation. The government offers little federal assistance to rural schools, commercial firms are not producing adequate teaching materials for them, and most institutions of higher education offer no programs for the special needs of rural teachers.

> Beginning in the 1890's and gaining momentum in the early twentieth century, reformers mounted an attack on the Rural School Problem. The "bookish" curriculum, haphazard selection and supervision of teachers, voluntary character of school attendance, discipline problems, diversity of buildings and equipment - these were but symptoms of deeper problems, they believed. What was basically wrong with rural education was that rural folk wanted to run their schools and didn't know what was good for them in the complex new society. (18, p. 21).

Consolidation of rural schools and rural school districts has been the most successfully implemented educational policy of the last fifty years, according to Sher and Tompkins, and, furthermore, the evidence supporting this consolidation policy is not only weak, but obviously biased.

The research, for the most part, fails to document alleged benefits of consolidation and fails to point out the problems of consolidation.

> With rare exceptions, this body of research is methodologically unsound, with almost every study open to criticisms severe and significant enough to make the findings extremely suspect (16, p. 45).

A great deal of the existing research seems to be devoted entirely to proving that small rural schools have weeknesses and should be consolidated out of existence with all deliberate speed (4, p. 95).

Untiring effort has been expended in an attempt to eliminate the rural school problem; however, most of the effort has been aimed at "urbanizing" rural schools through forced consolidation. This policy allegedly "solves" several problems at once. It takes the decision making process out of the hands of the rural people and puts it in the hands of urban trained professionals while creating larger school districts that are supposedly more economical, more efficient, and of a higher quality (18, pp. 21-27).

According to Sher and Tompkins, however, large schools in rural areas do not save money, regardless of the popularity of this notion, they are not more efficient, and the quality of education is not improved (16, pp. 43-77).

Regardless of the validity of the consolidation argument, it has not eliminated the problems of rural education. The educational attainment of rural students is low while absenteeism is high. Nonenrollment of eligible students is high (13, p. 4). Rural school resources are scarce (17, p. 38). Often, rural schools are not prepared to deal with physical or mental handicaps (4, p. 102). Rural teachers often hold expectations that are too high for the rural students (4, p. 93). The most frequent problem with rural schools cited in the literature is a lack of innovative teaching (4, p. 99). With little financial backing at their disposal and no clear educational model available to them because of the diversity between rural school districts, rural schools have been forced

to rely upon flexibility for their very existence (17, p. 37).

However, rural residents have confidence and respect for their local schools and for the ability of the school board to deal with school problems (6, p. 42). Furthermore, in spite of financial restrictions, they often stand ready to support innovative programs when they are convinced of the validity and worth of the program (4, p. 102). There is evidence that a close-knit relationship exists between the rural school and the rural community. Dunne suggests that a mixing of the social classes contributes to this relationship. "The child of the doctor shares a classroom and a playground with the children of farmers or loggers," in a rural school. This mixing, according to Dunne, leads to an involvement in the school by the entire community (4, p. 98). Rural citizens, in fact, would often rather send their children to a small rural school even if a larger school is available (4, p. 103).

Even though citizens in a rural community feel that teachers often use their job as a stepping stone toward a more attractive position (4, p. 104), and are watched more closely than teachers in other places, the teachers feel that parents are more cooperative in rural schools (4, p. 92). Perhaps this cooperativeness is due in some part to the fact that rural teachers tend to return to the communities where they grew up, or similar communities, and they generally live in the community near their school. Thus a community feeling is intact because most rural

teachers are truly a part of the rural community. They know, for instance, that a teacher must measure every statement in a casual conversation because, even in nonschool settings, the teacher's word has educational significance that will often be relayed to every resident in the community (4, p. 92). Rural teachers with a rural background "help to maintain cultural continuity between home and school" and find more satisfaction in rural teaching than teachers with an urban background (4, p. 93).

Teachers from an urban background may have more problems finding job satisfaction in a rural school situation because their teacher training program did little to prepare them for teaching in a small rural school (4, p. 100).

The very values that give some teachers satisfaction in a rural area are the cause of grief for others not prepared for the experience. For instance, the close ties between home and school can be cited as a weakness because they encourage teacher prejudgments. Thus a teacher who knows every member of each family may feel that a child from a certain family is sure to behave in a certain manner because "the whole family is that way." One study found strong rural agreement that there were too many "traditional" teachers and not enough "innovative teachers" in rural schools (4, p. 100).

Rural schools do have weaknesses, but they also have their unique strengths in spite of the attitude of many outsiders. In fact, many of the educational ideals that are already the

essence of many rural school programs are now being eagerly sought by educators in city schools (17, p. 36). Rural students have been found to yearn for "more intellectual stimulation and greater access to new resources (4, p. 100). "Parental involvement, community support, individualized instruction, and many other educational ideals" for which city schools are struggling have already been made a part of the rural school program. "In other words, there's a lesson for us all to be learned from rural schools," says one author (17, p. 36). As enrollments and financial resources decrease, urban schools may soon be forced to copy the methods that rural schools have used for years (17, p. 38).

The solution to rural school problems has traditionally been designed by outsiders who feel they know what is best for rural schools, and consolidation has most frequently been seen to be the answer (18, pp. 13-39). Research dealing with consolidation too often has implied the fairy tale ending of "they all lived happily ever after." Researchers are only recently beginning to document problems caused by consolidation. An education professor from Boston University, for example, recently discovered that consolidation of the Preston County schools in West Virginia has caused problems, including a substantial decline in participation in extracurricular activities by pupils living in areas where former schools were closed and a sharp increase in the drop out rate (2, p. 8).

Consolidation has not been an effective means of solving the problems of rural education, but millions of children are attending rural schools, and consolidation continues to be the most prevalent solution offered for meeting the problems of rural education. The attitude seems to be that if consideration doesn't work, nothing will. Meanwhile, rural children are being neglected by the very agencies who wield the power to be of assistance. For instance, government agencies are shortchanging rural school children.

> there are more than 15 million children (ages 5 through 17) enrolled in nonmetropolitan schools. This is approximately one-third of all students in U.S. public schools. There are thus more students in nonmetropolitan schools than there are in central-city schools. Similarly, more than 11,000 school districts (two-thirds of the U.S. total) are located in nonmetropolitan areas. When one also remembers that, since 1972, nonmetropolitan areas have been gaining in population, it becomes apparent that this constituency will continue to be a sizable one well into the future . . .
>
> Despite the size of the nonmetropolitan education sector, there is not a single federal employee (let alone a bureau or division) anywhere within the Department of Health, Education and Welfare whose assignment is to assist, analyze, or even pay attention to America's rural schools. Not surprisingly, this has meant that an overwhelming proportion of federally funded programs, demonstrations, and research have focused on the concerns of inner cities and large metropolitan areas. Thus, while approximately 32% of the nation's schoolchildren are in nonmetropolitan areas, HEW testimony before Congress has revealed that only 5% of research dollars, 11% of library and materials funds, 13% of basic vocational aid, 13% of dropout prevention funds, and disproportionately low levels of most other federal education funds go to nonmetropolitan areas (14, p. 280).

Thus, while approximately one out of every three public school students attend rural schools in this country, very little federal education money goes to rural schools. Most of the federally funded educational programs are allocated to inner cities and large urban areas even though there are more children in rural schools than in inner city schools. One argument for neglecting rural schools is that rural communities are so resistant to any kind of change that it just doesn't do any good to try to help them. Dunne discounts that argument.

> Clearly, community resistance does not account fully for the slow rate of rural innovation. The professional education establishment and the commercial curriculum designers must share in that responsibility (4, p.100).

The differences between rural school districts are as great as the differences between rural and nonrural schools. The result is that profits are more lucrative for commercially prepared teaching materials that are appropriate for suburban and urban schools. Commercial firms, therefore, have not designed materials for rural teachers.

> For fifteen years, curriculum developers have undertaken countless projects for urban children, ranging from Sesame Street to minority-oriented social studies curricula for the high schools. For twenty years, carefully designed suburban curriculum packages have been available. During the same period, virtually nothing has been done for the rural child . . . as a result, the teacher looking for innovative materials for a class of suburban or urban children has a vast array to choose from; a teacher looking for similar resources for a group

> of poor country pupils must generally be resigned to teaching about fire hydrants, manicured lawns, skyscrapers, and other accoutrements of life in metropolitan America (4, p. 101).

Unresponsive commercial firms have not designed teaching materials for rural schools, and unresponsive colleges and universities across the nation have not prepared teachers to meet the special needs of rural children. A recent rise in teacher demand has seen a 50% drop in the teacher surplus. Seventy two percent of recent graduates, it was reported in January of 1979, were females that came mainly from small towns and rural areas (11, p. 341). However, few of them received any preparation for teaching rural children (4, p. 101). Colleges and universities rarely offer programs for the preparation of rural school teachers (15, p. 287).

One rural geographical area that cries out for educational assistance is the Appalachian area.

> In the literature on Appalachia, though it is possible to find disagreement on almost any other subject, there is no serious disagreement about the inappropriateness of the school system in the region (9, p. 13).

Part of the problem with the Appalachian school system is that it was imposed upon the people from the outside by pastors and teachers who, determined to teach Appalachians "better ways," forced an urban system upon them that was unnatural to the mountain people (9, p. 13). In addition, the textbooks and other school materials were designed for children in other parts of the country and contain material that the rural children find strange (15, pp. 284-285).

Worse still, most of the teachers were prepared by an urban faculty with methods appropriate to urban schools and urban children. They were not prepared to meet the special needs of rural children in rural schools. (9, pp. 14-15).

Appalachia's colleges and universities are as unresponsive to the real needs and resources of the area as are the public schools, with virtually no contact between college faculty and local residents and a carefully designed plan for "transcending" any hint at regionalism (9, pp.14-15). Rural teachers need to be specially prepared for teaching rural children in rural schools (15, p. 287). Presently, most are not.

The neglect of rural schools has resulted in a multitude of rural teachers who have not been prepared to meet the needs of rural children, who do not enjoy an equal share of federal aid, and who do not have access to professionally designed commercial materials of the calibre used by their urban and suburban teacher counterparts (4, p. 101).

Educational reformers have long voiced a need for the transformation of rural schools, but the attitude of most outsiders has traditionally been a reluctance to allow the rural citizenry to decide educational issues for themselves. A biased literature has reacted to rural education as if it were an antiquated concept that should have been replaced long ago with a more sophisticated urban model. Consolidation has been seen by many as the most effective means of taking important

educational decisions away from the rural citizenry and giving it to more enlightened professionals. Governmental agencies, commercial firms, and institutions of higher education have supported the popular attitude toward rural education and practiced neglect upon rural schools. Hopefully, a change is upon the horizon.

> After decades of relative obscurity, issues relating to education in rural areas are enjoying a minor renaissance across the country. The origins of this renewed interest are unclear, but seem (at least in part) to flow from larger concerns about balanced growth and rural development, a new appreciation of cultural pluralism, skepticism about the quality and efficacy of large schools and urban models of education, and the irony of "progressive" urban and suburban school systems embracing traditional rural practices (e.g., individualized instruction, cross-age grouping, and peer teaching).
>
> Whatever the origins, the most salient fact now is that this consensus is emerging: Rural education is worthy of significantly more attention and assistance than researchers, policy makers, and educators have accorded it in the recent past (14, p. 280).

Teacher Education in the Church College

Past efforts by pastors and teachers to impose better ways upon rural people from the outside by forcing an urban system upon them have not always proven to be satisfactory (9, p. 13). Often located in or near rural America, the small liberal arts church college is, nevertheless, well situated to help initiate a renewed effort to improve rural education. The result may prove mutually beneficial, strengthening both the college and the rural school system.

Writing in the Faculty Forum, David Mobberley speaks of the problems church colleges are having in their search for uniqueness. The difference between a teacher prepared in a church college and a teacher prepared in a state university is difficult to detect because the teacher education programs are so much alike. Mobberley remembers a different time when the liberal arts church college "knew what it was and where it was going and it went there . . ." The uniqueness of the church college began to erode during the 1950s, following the Korean conflict, when the "typical collegiate posture" of students underwent a change. This change led to "the tumult" of the 1960s in American colleges and universities.

> Then, almost without warning, the structure seemed to come apart. And defense of many of the traditional marks became hollow and unconvincing.
>
> The one factor which probably effected the dissolution of religious uniqueness more decisively than any other was the legal assault on church colleges under the banner of the separation of church and state. Conscious of the implications of the separation doctines, many colleges hurriedly found the means to secularize. Vital federal and state financial aid hung in the balance (10, p. 2).

Many distinctive church college practices of the past have all but disappeared. Though differences may still exist, they are more difficult for the casual observer to identify than were "required chapel, required Bible, rigid proscriptions agains the moral taints of tobacco, liquor, and dancing" and "zealous regulation of boy-girl relationships," to name a few (10, p. 2).

The time and effort spent in stating and revising church college aims and objectives has often resulted in "bewilderment and argument." In addition, professional accreditation has compounded the problem by erasing differences, even as they have elevated standards, for both church colleges and state institutions of higher learning (10, p. 1).

The church college is now seeking to prove its "vitality to an increasingly skeptical constituency." Students are choosing colleges with more demanding expectations, and tuition dollars are not as readily obtainable as they once were. In addition, church support and benevolent contributions to church colleges are no longer as readily available (10, p. 1).

The skepticism toward church colleges has grown out of a larger skepticism toward all societal institutions. Both church and state institutions of higher education have suffered from a lack of public confidence. The Final Report of the Fifty-Sixth American Assembly concludes that:

> Public confidence in American higher education has been eroded in recent years. Consensus of what constitutes legitimate higher education has been reduced, and expectations of it - and claims for it - have not been fulfilled. Financial resources and enrollments will not grow appreciably and, in fact, probably will decline (1, p. 4).

Mobberley calls for what he labels a "hopelessly unoriginal" new stance as the central theses for church colleges. Claiming that this stance rests with Christian doctrine, he suggests that church colleges adopt the two thrusts of transformation and servanthood as their central theses of collegiate operation.

> At its best the church has always stood for transformation and servanthood. The United Methodist Church, historically not a church but a social movement, accepted its historic mission to transform the brokenness of humanity - socially, politically, economically - by way of vital servanthood (10, p. 2).

Mobberley adds that many church colleges failed to keep abreast of the times and clung to "ancient academic rigidities" because of their manifold problems. Asserting that decency, civility, good taste, and the liberal arts should not be abandoned, he urges church colleges to adopt a dual central purpose: (1) to transform, and (2) to serve (10, p. 6).

If transformation means to help bring about desired changes, and servanthood implies that help will not be forced upon an unwilling public but will be forthcoming upon request, then Mobberley's model may provide an avenue of mutual benefit to rural schools and church colleges. Rural schools need help that is not forced upon them, and church colleges, one of several institutions with the means for assisting rural schools through their teacher education programs, need to distinguish themselves from state institutions. The preparation of better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools is one means of proving the vitality of church colleges to an increasingly skeptical constituency. A model embracing transformation through servanthood may provide a means for church colleges to assist rural communities with their

educational problems without repeating mistakes of the past.

The Professional Crossfire

Church colleges may once have failed to keep abreast of the times and still managed somehow to survive, but that survival may well be threatened by a professional crossfire that is both internal and external in its dimensions.

Ironically, this crossfire involves a tug-of-war between advocates of more and advocates of less professionalism in the college curriculum. Efforts on both sides of the crossfire appear to be admirable and intense. Both sides warn of serious consequences to institutions that ignore their goals, and both sides look to accrediting agencies for support.

Simply put, the advocates of less professionalism believe that the prevalence of vocational and professional courses in the undergraduate curriculum is partly responsible for the public suspicion of higher education. The undergraduate curriculum is losing its legitimacy, and part of the reason can be traced to an impingement upon the liberal arts by too much professionalism (1, pp. 4-7).

Advocates of more professionalism among elementary and secondary teachers are calling for a substantially stronger preparation of teachers by doubling or tripling the number of courses in professional education (8, pp. 18-19).

From one side of the crossfire comes the warning that:

> These conditions create an urgent need to deal with problems that are both internal and external to the academic community. Failure to address the problems forthrightly and imaginatively.

> will have serious negative effects on the integrity of universities and colleges (1, p. 4).

Representing the other side of the crossfire, a prominent spokesman warns that:

> If our institutions do not want to respect us in this manner, then I would say, regardless of their size, they <u>should</u> be threatened (5, p. 28).

The tug-of-war is a reflection of the concerns of faculty members in colleges and universities across the nation. It is no exaggeration to describe this as a house divided. As push comes to shove, the divided house may well fall. Or, in other words, as teacher educators strive to increase the professional preparation of teachers, the teacher education program may no longer be welcome within the liberal arts institution. Moreover, because teacher education programs are vital to many colleges, including especially many church related colleges (8, p. 19), this professional crossfire may very well endanger the very existence of the institution.

From one side of the crossfire comes the recommendation that regional accreditation must be strengthened (1, p. 7) in order to resist increased professionalism. From the other side comes the suggestion that professional accrediting agencies should force institutions to comply with more demanding professional standards (5, p. 28).

<u>Decreased Professionalism</u>

The integrity of all higher education is under question by a public that has come to feel that there is waste and

inflated claims about faculty and curriculum (1, pp. 4-6).

The American Assembly's 1979 Final Report alleges that the public is suspicious of the tenure concept in higher education, and they believe that among the institutions of higher learning, regardless of academic rhetoric, one study program is about like another. The public is not pleased with the prospect of collective bargaining in higher education or the fact that college graduates are unable to find the jobs they expected. The public views vigorous college recruitment along with lower admission policies and admission of foreign students as simply matters of financial exigency which have no regard for academic integrity. In addition, the public notices that, regardless of the blanket of affirmative action, there has been no meaningful advance for women and minorities among faculty ranks in higher education. In addition, the report states that higher education is troubled by breaches of ethical conduct among both the students and faculty in American colleges and universities. The report maintains that there are many reasons for prompt action regarding American higher education. Among the reasons cited is that the conduct of personnel in higher education:

> may so profoundly affect the intellectual and moral development of the young that even seemingly minor departures from integrity cannot be tolerated (1, p. 6).

Declaring that "the time to act is now," the American Assembly report proposes thirty two recommendations concerning higher education. The issue of distorting the undergraduate

curriculum with an excess of professionalism is addressed in recommendation number 13. It reads:

> Institutions must resist current pressures to distort general, liberal undergraduate education by the introduction of excessive vocationalism or professionalism (1, p. 7).

A college education should not be confused with the preparation within a professional school. Each has a separate and distinct place, and it is the responsibility of each institution to carefully distinguish between the two.

> Institutions that are narrowly vocational or professional should not represent themselves as providers of liberal education; conversely, liberal arts colleges should not claim to prepare students for a specific vocation (1, p. 7).

The undergraduate curriculum is losing its legitimacy, in part, because of an impingement upon the liberal arts by a prevalence of vocational and professional courses. A liberal education should be broad. Preparation for a job is not the function of a college education. Graduate schools specialize, colleges generalize.

> Efforts should be made to counter premature specialization in undergraduate education. Exposure to more than one discipline, to multidisciplinary courses, to foreign languages, and to international studies is of positive value in undergraduate education (1, p. 7).

In recognition of the pressures from professional accrediting agencies, the Assembly recommended strengthening regional accrediting and resisting specialized organizations.

> Higher education must strengthen and reinforce the existing processes of regional accreditation as one important means for self-regulation . . . Specialized licensing boards and professional organizations have an important role in helping to determine proficiency levels for professional certification. However, attempts by such groups to prescribe admissions policy, structure, or faculty salaries must be resisted (1, p. 7).

The argument for less professionalism in the undergraduate curriculum comes out of a concern for the integrity of higher education, the constitution of a legitimate college curriculum, and the perceived posture of higher education personnel. This stance is in direct conflict with the aspirations of the teaching profession.

Increased Professionalism

Determined to reach full professional maturity, members of the teaching profession are following precedents set by other existing professions. An examination of existing research, governance, licensing, and preparation has resulted in a dedicated effort for drastic improvement in every aspect of teaching.

Teacher preparation is only one of many glaring weaknesses within the profession which is undergoing a stringent redefinition. In discussing the professional preparation of teachers, Robert Howsam points out that a major difference between the preparation of teachers and the preparation of other professionals is the concentration on one or more disciplines or teaching fields required of teachers in addition to whatever

else is expected. Though the "mature professions" require as much as seven or more years of university preparation, less mature professions such as engineering and business, though only four-year programs, never-the-less require at least 75 semester hours in the professional discipline. Teacher education requirements are commonly no more than 20 to 30 semester hours (8, pp. 18-19). Howsam says that increasing the amount of professional education is critical to the development of the teaching profession, and that an additional year should be required in order to accomplish this. A true professional internship, not to be confused with student teaching, should be introduced immediately (8, p. 19).

Admitting that the needed changes for developing the teaching profession will be extremely difficult, Howsam refers to the prevalent belief that teacher education is nothing more than another undergraduate major as a stumbling block. He cites vested interests as another difficulty. "Universities have a vested interest in teacher education students (not in teacher education, about which many couldn't care less)" (8, p. 19).

The fervor of this side of the professional crossfire is even more evident in the remarks of Lawrence A. Cremin.

> James Earl Russell stated his belief in 1900 that general culture, special scholarship, professional knowledge, and technical skill were essential to all educators, not merely the leaders of the profession. I would restate that belief as my own. And I would maintain further that the time has come to require the doctorate for all

> who would seek entry into the educating profession (3, p. 22).

Cremin is clearly advocating the "Mature profession" that Robert Howsam says requires " as much as seven years and more of university-level work."

> The most fundamental characteristic of a profession is expertise in providing an essential social service to society. In each profession there is an ever-expanding body of knowledge and a repertoire of behaviors and skills which the profession as an institution has developed . . .
>
> Each profession also has a well-developed means of passing on its culture to inductees and for ensuring a safe level of competence and dedication before admission and during service. Customarily, the profession elects to conduct its preparation program from a university base, makes extensive use of practical experiences in the delivery system institutions, and involves the most proficient of the practitioners in the training and examination processes. Accreditation is used to control quality in preparation institutions, while common professional examinations are used in quality control of individuals before admission to practice. Additionally, there usually is an extended internship or other form of supervised experience before licensure to practice. Thus do professions become the source of authority for professional practice. Thus do they become the ultimate monitors of ethical behavior and of professional competence. And thus do they retain responsibility for their own governance (8, pp. 14-15).

An effort is clearly in motion to increase the professional preparation of teachers. Caught up in this professional Zeitgeist, teacher educators are faced with a counter effort to resist any increased professionalism within the undergraduate curriculum. The crossfire is dangerous, resulting in internal and external struggles. Faculty within institutions

are at cross purposes. Professional teacher organizations are experiencing a division of purpose as faculty from large universities imply that the time has come for smaller institutions to abandon their teacher education programs, for the Zeitgeist clearly calls for university level preparation of teachers beyond the limits of small liberal arts colleges.

However, small colleges are involved in the preparation of members of the other professions, and there are other proposals for increasing the professional status of teachers.

Beyond the Crossfire

While an awareness of the intensity and direction of the professional crossfire may be essential to the survival of some colleges, many can ill afford to enter the skirmishes or become mere spectators waiting for its outcome. A national effort is underway to prepare better teachers, and the church college can join that effort. Better teachers does not necessarily imply higher credentials, more specialization or urban training, at least not for rural communities, according to Jonathan Sher (15, p. 287).

While agreeing that better teachers would benefit the rural schools, Sher questions the traditional meaning of "better" in the preparation of rural teachers. He suggests that what rural schools need are teachers who are trained to be generalists rather than specialists, just as the medical profession has found need for more general practitioners in recent years than for so many specialists. The educational

profession has a need to prepare "general practitioners" who understand and are prepared to work with the unique assets and liabilities of rural schools. They should be prepared to cope with sparcity, make use of community resources, develop their own teaching materials, and most of all be oriented "toward teaching children rather than subjects." They should be explicitly prepared to teach in rural schools (15, p. 287).

A few of Sher's recommendations that appear to have relevance to the preparation of general practitioners for teaching in rural schools include:

1. Programs in colleges and graduate schools of education across the nation should specifically prepare teachers for service in rural schools (15, p. 287).

2. Compentently designed curricula need to be developed that are appropriate for the communities where they will be used (15, p. 287).

3. "Build a curriculum that reflects and enhances the natural advantages of rural communities" (15, p. 285).

4. "Design a curriculum that gives rural children a sense of options for their adult lives" (15, p. 285).

5. "Incorporate firm but fair performance standards into the overall rural curriculum" (15, p. 286).

6. Eradicate all forced consolidation and reorganization (15, p. 280).

7. Develop multidistrict educational service agencies for the purpose of advancing rural education (15, pp. 280-281).

Another model for the development of more professional rural teachers was implemented by the Rural School Improvement Project (RSIP) sponsored by Berea College in eastern Kentucky from 1953 to 1957. In order to prepare teachers for small Appalachian schools, the RSIP project required prospective teachers to work in the community as well as in the schools and to assist in strengthening the school-community relationship. The prospective teachers first renovated tattered school buildings and then moved on to working on policy and curricular issues. They appeared to have avoided the most obvious fault of college-based school improvement projects by committing themselves to working with community values and traditions rather than trying to "elevate" the concerns of school board members and parents. The college supervisors went to the schools rather than having participants travel to the college, and they concentrated on the whole community rather than on purely academic processes (4, p. 107).

If a rural teacher needs to become a general practitioner, the Gallop Poll may help focus on the kind of subjects that are most important. The 1978 10th Annual Gallop Poll of the Public's Attitude foward the Public Schools found that the following subjects taken in high school were judged to be most useful in later life, in order of mention:

1. English (literature, composition, grammar)
2. mathematics (arithmetic, business math, etc.)

3. commercial subjects (typing, bookkeeping, etc.)

4. extracurricular subjects (sports, drama, band, newspaper, etc.)

5. shop (woodworking, drafting, machines, etc.)

6. history

7. science

8. foreign language

9. psychology

10. domestic science (sewing, cooking, etc.) (7, p. 14).

The public seems to feel that English and mathematics are the most useful high school subjects with the more practical commercial subjects following close behind. In fact, all ten subjects are apparently considered to be practical in that the public sees them as useful in later life. Ironically, many teachers are not adequately prepared to deal with subjects taught in the public schools. Perhaps a concentration on the development of specialists rather than generalists has been a contributing factor, but whatever the reason many prospective teachers are apparently weak in basic school subjects.

> Many prospective teachers are not truly literate. For example, one-third of applicants for teaching jobs failed an eighth-grade general knowledge test in Florida in 1976 (11, p. 341).

Premature specialization in undergraduate education may account, in part, for the failure of standardized tests in Dallas by over half of the teachers who took them (6, p. 337).

There is no doubt that the preparation of better teachers

is essential to increasing the professional status of teachers. However, the accepted meaning of "better" in teacher preparation is in need of close study. Even the meaning of "better" forms of media for teaching is under question. Wilbur Schram, author of Big Media, Little Media charges that educators have lost touch with the basic purpose of instructional media. The result is that the complex and extremely expensive forms of media have often been selected when low cost, high efficiency media could serve the purpose equally as well. Little media, including slide projections, transparencies, tapes, and radio, represent huge financial savings over big media, such as movies, computers, and television. Moreover, little media often serves the basic purpose and is especially practical for use in developing areas (12).

Thus, while current efforts to enhance the professional status of teachers is deserving of respect and support by the academic community, so, too, are the counter efforts to resist premature professionalism in the undergraduate curriculum.

Until it becomes apparent what role church colleges should play in the creation of a mature teaching profession, they can offer a legitimate service by helping to transform existing educational systems. Nonmetropolitan educational systems are especially in need of such assistance. The rural communities face problems with their schools just as larger communities do. However, the rural communities do not have as many resources at their disposal. Existing agencies have not given the backing to nonmetropolitan schools that they have given to the

metropolitan districts. Church colleges can provide better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools through teacher education programs designed specifically for that purpose.

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CHAPTER III

METHODS OF THE STUDY

This study concerned itself with the preparation of better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools through the modification of an existing teacher education program following a study of both administration and rural education. An attempt was made to identify basic elements and underlying concepts of importance to the administration and redesign of the program.

The administrative study was done through an administrative internship on the campus of Southwestern University, a summary of which is included in Appendix C. The study of rural education took the form of personal interviews and a questionnaire intended to determine perceived needs and characteristics of rural citizens from which to form the basis for program modifications.

The administrative study included independent reading and on-the-scene administrative training with an informal attempt at documentation through photographic slides and a daily journal.

The rural education study included independent reading and personal interviews based upon an open-ended survey instrument. This survey instrument is included in Appendix A. The personal interviews were documented by tape recordings and photographic slides of the individuals interviewed. Comments from the interviews were tabulated in a listing of repeated and original comments. Ideas from previous interviews were then added to the

open-ended survey instrument in order to get a reaction to the new ideas. Therefore, the survey instrument in Appendix A represents the original instrument used during the first few interviews. Later, other ideas were added and brought up during the interviews. The tabulated comments from the interviews were used to formulate hypotheses. A four part questionnaire, also based upon the tabulation of comments, was designed to further test the hypotheses. This questionnaire is included in Appendix B. Results of the questionnaire were used to guide in the design of final recommendations for program modification. Administrative recommendations, based upon personal experiences and a daily journal, were then formulated for administering the proposed program modifications.

Procedures for Collecting Data

Following the administrative internship, a search for an existing program for the preparation of nonmetropolitan teachers, which could simply be duplicated, was conducted. The search was quickly abandoned when it was deemed that such a procedure was neither practical nor efficient.

> The primacy of local circumstance must be respected. Rural America may well represent the single most diverse and heterogeneous group of individuals and communities in our society. Thus, the notion of an educational panacea - that is, an educational reform strategy that is applicable and effective throughout rural America - is ludicrous. Any reform strategy that seeks to circumvent local traditions, values, beliefs, and capabilities, rather than building upon them, is bound to fail (1, pp. 274-275).

After abandoning search for an existing rural studies program, it was determined that in order to take into account local traditions, values, beliefs, and capabilities, a questionnaire based upon previously held personal interviews would be utilized.

Subjects

It was decided that approximately forty people should be interviewed in order to assure a sufficient sampling, and that the survey should include both professional educators and non-professionals from two groups of West Virginians, a school-related group and a college-related group. Teachers and school administrators, parents, teacher educators, and Methodist ministers were chosen as a selection worthy of representing the values and beliefs upon which to build a program suitable for a Methodist college.

Eighteen teachers, four school administrators, three parents, seven teacher educators, the college Dean, and seven Methodist ministers were interviewed. Three of the teacher educators were members of the State Department of Education.

In the selection of subjects to be interviewed in person, teachers and two administrators were selected by a random sampling from a list of current supervisors of West Virginia Wesleyan College student teachers. Two school administrators were chosen because of their importance to college-school relations. Parents were selected by random sample from a list

of Upshur County, West Virginia PTA officers. Methodist ministers were selected from a list of Upshur County, West Virginia ministers supplied by the college Director of Parish Ministry. Teacher educators, State Department of Education officials, and the college Dean were selected because of their familiarity with the existing college program. One chosen participant was not available for interview and was replaced by a self-selected participant who approached the interviewer and asked what he was doing in the building. In need of a replacement, the interviewer answered that he had come from West Virginia Wesleyan College "to conduct a personal interview with you."

Following the personal interviews, a questionnaire was designed based upon comments from the interviews. The questionnaire was mailed to 89 people (a procedural error was responsible for 89 rather than 100), including all who had been interviewed plus an expanded list of the chosen clientele.

Instruments Used

Two instruments were used in this study, the Nonmetropolitan Educational Survey and the Nonmetropolitan Educational Questionnaire, both included in the Appendix. The rationale behind both instruments was that they should be designed to help prepare better teachers for rural school systems. The first instrument, the survey, was to be composed of open-ended inquiries to be administered orally. The subjects were to be citizens in nonmetropolitan school districts where Wesleyan

graduates teach. Responses to the survey were used to help identify important educational concerns that are unique to the communities served by the teacher education program. These concerns were later used to compile an objective type questionnaire that would be more widely distributed in nonmetropolitan school districts. The results of the questionnaire were then to become the basis for a revision of the teacher education program. Both the survey and the questionnaire were developed to help improve the preparation of school teachers for nonmetropolitan schools.

Instructions to the interviewer using the survey instrument were included. The interviewer should explain to the person being interviewed that the survey will help to improve the preparation of school teachers for nonmetropolitan schools. The interviewer should then thank the person being interviewed for agreeing to the interview and explain that the questions are about education in this community for children in this community. The questions are not attempting to address generalities applicable to other parts of the country or children outside of this community. The interviewer should then ask the first question (which may or may not be the first question on the list because it was not planned that any interview would either cover all questions on the survey instrument or be confined to the questions on the instrument). The interviewer would let the person being interviewed do the talking when possible. Additional questions were to be asked only when the person being interviewed had apparently finished talking or had strayed from the

subject of rural or educational issues; or in later interviews, when the interviewer had heard the same answers several times before. In case of a short answer, the interviewer should ask related questions (like those that are not underlined in the survey instrument) until about four minutes have been spent on each of the five general topics. However, the interviewer should not interrupt for the sake of covering all the topics even if the first answer takes up all the allotted time. Each interview should last approximately twenty minutes. A tape recorder should be used if it does not bother the person being interviewed, but if the person being interviewed prefers, the interviewer will record answers by hand.

All interviews were tape recorded. A copy of the open-ended Nonmetropolitan Educational Survey appears in Appendix A.

The other instrument used in this study was titled the Nonmetropolitan Educational Questionnaire. This instrument is composed of four parts, the first three containing items suggested in the previously administered survey. The fourth part was included to pick up fresh ideas that the survey failed to uncover. The instrument was mailed to 89 selected persons with return address and postage affixed. The instrument begins with brief instructions for completing and returning followed by a section for personal data, including sex, race, age, education, parental data, and community background information to determine whether the participant comes from a metropolitan or nonmetropolitan community, the size of the community, and the state.

Part I contains a dozen reasons for the existence of schools, all of which were mentioned or implied in the personal interviews, and the respondent is asked to rank them in order of their importance for nonmetropolitan schools. A thirteenth reason for the existence of school that was frequently mentioned during the personal interviews was deliberately omitted. This reason might be described as "getting back to the basics." The reason for its omission is that it seemed to mean something different to each person who mentioned it. In the design of the questionnaire it was determined, after much deliberation, that certain assumptions would be made about the "basics."

It was assumed that the basics are fundamental to any basic reason for the existence of school. Personal interviews seemed to indicate that "getting back to the basics" has become a convenient slogan that often serves to mask the important questions of content and process. It was also assumed that "getting back to the basics" necessarily implies a curtailment of some part of the curriculum or school activities. Therefore, an attempt was made to reveal the locally perceived basic reasons for the existence of school with the assumption that "the basics" are an important part of the rational. An attempt was also made to determine whether there was a local desire to curtail the school's curriculum or activities. Part I of the questionnaire measures the basic reasons for school as locally perceived, and the first four questions in Part II attempt to measure the desire for curtailment of the curriculum and school activities, as do any number of other questions in this section.

Part II contains forty true-false staements with the instructions that this is not a test of knowledge or ability but merely an indication of personal preference. If the respondent believes that the statement is true or false, he/she should so indicate. The statements in Part II form the hypotheses for the study.

Part III asks the respondent to grade the local school system.

Part IV asks for improvements that the respondent would like to see in the local schools.

A copy of the Nonmetropolitan Educational Questionnaire is included in Appendix B.

Design

One summer and one semester were spent in the study of higher educational administration; the following semester and summer were spent in the study of rural education.

The administrative study consisted of individual readings and an internship on the campus of Southwestern University. A summary of the internship is included in Appendix C.

The rural education study consisted of individual readings and personal interviews, followed by a questionnaire. Hypothesized needs and characteristics of rural communities and schools, and recommendations for teacher education program modification, were formulated on the basis of interview responses. A questionnaire was mailed to test opinions expressed in the interviews and to test the hypotheses resulting from the interviews. Results of the questionnaire were tabulated, and this formed the basis

for acceptance or rejection of each hypothesis and final recommendations consistent with the results.

This study was not intended to be one with a strong theoretical base or to be highly technical. It was intended, rather, as a practical study for the purpose of making recommendations for change based upon common sense, guided by locally repectable values and beliefs, as well as ideas presented in the professional literature.

Procedures for Treating Data

Recommendations for modifying the teacher education program to allow more emphasis on rural education and to produce better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools are the result of a personal administrative internship, readings, reflection, and opinions expressed in personal interviews and tested by a questionnaire administered by mail.

Opinions from the personal interviews were tabulated in the form of statements. The statements were revised after each day of interviewing in an attempt to make the statements represent the thinking of the group in as few assertions as possible. Similar thoughts were combined, reworded, and compressed. This process resulted in the formulation of a questionnaire.

Results from the questionnaire were tabulated by simply counting and recording the responses. Hypotheses were accepted on the basis of a majority of 51% or higher. Personal

experiences, readings, and reflection also had an effect upon program recommendations. However, the data from the questionnaire were inspected; and conclusions, comments, and recommendations were formulated consistent with the data collected.

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CHAPTER IV

RESULTS OF THE STUDY

Selected teachers, parents, Methodist ministers, and teacher educators were interviewed. A questionnaire was formulated based upon comments from the interviews. The questionnaire was mailed to an expanded list of the same clientele. Forty six percent of the questionnaires were completed and returned.

Respondents

Carried to the nearest decimal point, 49% of the respondents were male and 51% were female. All were white. 24% were under thirty years of age, 49% were from thirty to fifty years of age, and 27% were over the age of fifty. All respondents indicated that they had a college education, but some pencilled in an explanation that they had not finished college. 39% of the respondents have children in school; 59% do not. 12% of the respondents consider their backgrounds to be metropolitan, 83% have a nonmetropolitan background, and 5% indicate both metropolitan and nonmetropolitan backgrounds. Only 7% of the respondents, however, indicated that their backgrounds include a community of over 50,000 in size; 68% claim a community size of between 2,500 and 50,000 in their background, and 24% indicated a background in a community of less than 2,500 (One percentage point was lost in rounding off). 88% indicated that their background was in West Virginia, 5% indicated Penn-

sylvania, 2% indicated Indiana, and 5% indicated that they considered their background to include more than one state.

Basic Reasons for School

When asked to rank a dozen reasons for the existence of school, the respondents listed them in the following order of importance for nonmetropolitan schools, according to the group mean:

1. Mental Development (Cognitive Education)
2. Molding students into functional members of the existing society (Reproduction Philosophy)
3. Developing utilitarian skills for real life (Readjustment Philosophy)
4. Preparation for a job (Vocational Education)
5. Molding society into a better place for people (Reconstruction Philosophy)
6. Developing a value system (Value Formation)
7. Physical development (Physical Education)
8. Preparation for a future age such as a nuclear-computer era (Education for the Future)
9. Developing skills for an uncertain world of crises (Education for Existence)
10. Moral training (Moral Development)
11. Selection for social roles and social status (Selection and Sorting)
12. A safe place to watch over students (Custodial Care)

Hypotheses

Forty hypotheses were tested by asking respondents to agree or disagree with the statement by answering true or false. Following tabulation, the data were tabulated for analysis and entered into tables for clarity of presentation. The hypotheses are arbitrarily broken down into three categories, Program Hypotheses, Perceived Needs Hypotheses, and Perceived Characteristics Hypotheses. Tables I through III present the results of the forty hypotheses. Each table includes the hypothesis number, the percentage favoring the hypothesis, the percentage against the hypothesis, the percentage either not responding or responding that they did not know, and whether the hypothesis was accepted or rejected.

Table I presents the results of the first ten hypotheses which deal with teacher education program modification and are titled Program Hypotheses.

TABLE I

REACTION TO PROGRAM HYPOTHESES
(carried out two decimal places)

No.	For	Against	?	Accepted	Rejected
1	36.58	51.21	12.19		x
2	68.29	26.82	4.87	x	
3	63.41	19.51	17.07	x	
4	24.39	58.53	17.07		x
5	92.68	0	7.31	x	
6	97.56	0	2.43	x	
7	36.58	53.65	9.75		x
8	92.68	4.87	2.43	x	
9	65.85	31.70	2.43	x	
10	82.92	9.75	7.31	x	

Program Hypotheses

Hypothesis 1: The teacher education program should be increased from four to five years, terminating in a Master's Degree instead of a Bachelor's Degree.

This hypothesis was tested in order to ascertain public opinion toward increased professionalism through establishment of the first teacher education program in West Virginia to require a Master's Degree for entry into the teaching profession. As shown in Table I, 51.21 percent were opposed to the idea, 36.58 percent favored the idea, and 12.19 percent either did not respond or indicated that they did not know. This study indicates that public opinion locally is somewhat, but not strongly, against this method of increasing the professional status of teachers. Hypothesis 1 was rejected.

Hypothesis 2: An experience in "Student Substitute Teaching" prior to Student Teaching would be a good way for the prospective teacher to learn how to handle student discipline problems and to determine whether teaching is the right profession.

This hypothesis was tested to determine local public opinion toward a second avenue to increasing the professional status of teachers, that of increasing the amount of practical professional education in the preparation of teachers. 68.29 percent were in favor of this proposal while 26.82 percent were against it; 4.87 percent either did not respond or indicated that they did

not know. Local public opinion appears to favor this method of increasing the professional status of teachers. Hypothesis 2 was accepted.

Hypothesis 3: Wesleyan should require prospective nonmetropolitan teachers to take a course in rural or Appalachian culture which includes a study of rural food, music, dress, language, art, crafts, social customs, characteristics of the people, etc.

This hypothesis was designed to test whether public opinion favors a third avenue to increasing the professional status of teachers, that of offering special preparation for nonmetropolitan teachers through academic requirements. 63.41 percent favored this proposal while 19.51 percent were opposed. 17.01 percent either did not know or did not respond. Local public opinion appears to favor this method of increasing the professional status of teachers. Hypothesis 3 was accepted.

Hypothesis 4: College Biology or Psychology for prospective teachers should include training of animals for the purpose of acquiring the necessary patience for disciplining and for learning the basic techniques and principles of reinforcement.

Public opinion toward a fourth avenue for increasing the professional status of teachers was tested in this hypothesis. A method commonly used in medicine, the sciences and the field of psychology is to derive general principles from the study of lower animals before testing them on human subjects. 24.39 percent favored and 58.53 percent opposed this proposal while 17.07 percent either did not know or did not respond

opinion does not appear to support this method of increasing the professional status of teachers. Hypothesis 4 was rejected.

Hypothesis 5: Teachers should know how to use fire extinguishers.

The intent of this hypothesis was to explore a possibility for providing valuable practical experiences during the early phases of teacher education when the prospective teacher lacks the prerequisite knowledge and skills for substantive assistance to students in the classroom. Another possibility for increasing the professional status of teachers, this proposal might serve to prepare prospective teachers for working in a classroom. A surprising 92.69 percent were in favor of this idea while their was no opposition. 7.31 percent either did not respond or did not know. Hypothesis 5 was accepted.

Hypothesis 6: Teachers should have some knowledge of first aid for children.

Though a course is presently required in first aid for prospective elementary teachers, this idea was presented so frequently in personal interviews that it was decided to test local public opinion on the matter concerning all teachers. Still another means of increasing the professional status of teachers, this proposal also might offer possibilities for practical field experiences early in a teacher's preparation. While no hypothesis in this study received unanimous approval, this was one of five hypotheses that received no opposition and one of three hypotheses receiving the most support. 97.56 percent favored the idea while 2.43 percent did not know or did

not respond. Hypothesis 6 was accepted.

Hypothesis 7: Wesleyan should recruit prospective teachers from high schools in much the same manner that basketball players are now recruited.

One of the more innovative ideas for advancing the professional status of teachers which came from the personal interviews, this proposal was seen to be complementary to the desires of certain faculty committees to increase merit scholarships. However, while the opposition was not overwhelming, 53.65 percent were against the idea while only 36.58 percent were in favor of the idea. 9.75 percent either did not know or did not respond to this proposal. Hypothesis 7 was rejected.

Hypothesis 8: Wesleyan should impress upon prospective teachers the importance of professionalism and high public image in both school and non school settings.

This proposal had strong support. 92.68 percent were in favor while 4.87 percent were against the idea. There were 2.43 percent who either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 8 was accepted.

Hypothesis 9: Teachers should be encouraged to visit parents at home.

Seen as another possibility for enhancing the professional status of teachers through early field experiences in their preparation, this idea was advanced in order to determine whether the local public preferred not to be bothered at home. 65.85 percent were in favor of having teachers visit parents

at home while 31.70 percent did not favor the idea. Those who either did not know or did not respond comprised 2.43 percent. Hypothesis 9 was accepted.

Hypothesis 10: Teachers should participate in community affairs.

Another idea for enhancing the professional status of teachers which might have possibilities for early field experiences, this hypothesis was highly favored. 82.92 percent supported the idea while 9.75 percent were against it, and 7.31 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 10 was accepted.

Perceived Needs Hypotheses

Table II presents the results of fifteen hypotheses dealing with perceived needs.

TABLE II

REACTION TO PERCEIVED NEEDS HYPOTHESES

No.	For	Against	?	Accepted	Rejected
11	51.21	41.46	7.31	x	
12	97.56	0	2.43	x	
13	58.53	36.58	4.87	x	
14	14.63	80.48	4.87		x
15	65.85	21.75	12.19	x	
16	87.80	7.31	4.87	x	
17	75.60	19.51	4.87	x	
18	2.43	90.24	7.31		x
19	29.26	56.09	14.63		x
20	29.26	51.21	19.51		x
21	97.56	0	2.43	x	
22	92.68	2.43	4.87	x	
23	95.12	0	4.87	x	
24	87.80	9.75	2.43	x	
25	39.02	51.21	9.75		x

Hypotheses number 11 through 25 are arbitrarily seen to represent local opinions concerning perceived rural educational needs.

Hypothesis 11: Teachers should live in the community where they teach.

Just over half the sample were in favor of this hypothesis. 51.21% supported the idea; 41.46% rejected the idea, and 7.31% either did not know or did not respond. One of the two most narrowly accepted hypotheses, this bare margin may well reflect the attitude of an increasingly mobile society. Hypothesis 11 was accepted.

Hypothesis 12: Teachers need to understand the problems and traditions of the community in which they teach.

Though two others tied, no other hypothesis received more support than this one. 97.5 percent of the respondents favored this idea. Their was no opposition. 2.43 percent either did not respond or did not know. Hypothesis 12 was accepted.

Hypothesis 13: Even during the first three years of school, a wide variety of subjects should be offered.

The intent of this hypothesis was to obtain a covert measurement of the "back to basics" concept. Persons interviewed seemed frequently to favor both restricting the curriculum to "the basics" and enriching the curriculum at the same time. A majority appear to favor a wide variety of subjects even during the first three years of school. 58.53 percent indicated that as their preference. However, a sizeable 36.58 percent were against the idea while 4.87 percent did not

know or did not respond. Hypothesis 13 was accepted.

Hypothesis 14: Schools should concentrate on fewer subjects.

Intended as another covert measurement of the "back to basics" desire, the idea of a more narrow concentration for schools was soundly rejected. 80.48 percent were against this idea; 14.63 percent were in favor while 4.87 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 14 was rejected.

Hypothesis 15: Schools should attempt to raise children "close to nature" by not only teaching how to get along with, but also how to get along without, modern conveniences.

During personal interviews it was detected that "the basics" has come to mean an ability to function without technological assistance to a number of people (i.e. the ability to perform mathematical computations without the use of computers or the ability to exist without the use of modern energy supplies). Whether or not this study confirms this definition of "basics," respondents did support the concept of schools raising children "close to nature." 65.85 percent favored this idea; 21.75 percent were against it, and 12.19 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 15 was accepted.

Hypothesis 16: Nonmetropolitan schools should equip children with skills relevant to both rural and urban life.

Personal interviews indicated an awareness of the mobility of the population. A sizeable majority was in favor of pre-

paring rural children to function in both rural and urban societies. 87.80 percent favored this notion. There were 7.31 percent against the idea, and 4.87 percent did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 16 was accepted.

Hypothesis 17: Nonmetropolitan schools recruit highly competent teachers and administrators.

Personal interviews indicated a strong need to recruit well trained teachers and administrators for rural schools, but rather than being a need, it now appears to be a perceived characteristic of rural communities that they do just that. As usual, a small percent either did not know or did not respond. In this case it was 4.87 percent. 75.60 percent believed that highly competent teachers and administrators are presently being recruited by nonmetropolitan schools; 19.51 percent did not think so. Hypothesis 17 was accepted.

Hypothesis 18: Nonmetropolitan teachers hold expectations that are too high for students.

Though there is an indication in the literature that nonmetropolitan teachers hold expectations too high for their students, an overwhelming majority of the respondents felt otherwise. 90.24 percent rejected this notion. Only 2.43 percent agreed. 7.31 percent didn't know or didn't respond. Hypothesis 18 was rejected.

Hypothesis 19: Nonmetropolitan schools are prepared to deal with physical and mental handicaps.

Even with the great strides and federal mandates in the field of special education, 56.09 percent did not think that

nonmetropolitan schools are prepared to deal with physical and mental handicaps while only 29.26 percent felt that the schools are prepared. 14.63 percent did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 19 was rejected.

Hypothesis 20: Schools should work with community values rather than trying to "elevate" the concerns of parents and school boards.

The wording of this hypothesis might well represent an example of the Reproduction Philosophy (molding students into functional members of the existing society, perceived as the second most important basic reason for the existence of nonmetropolitan schools in this study). However, the rejection of this hypothesis by a small majority seems to indicate that molding society into a better place for people, (the Reconstruction Philosophy, perceived as the fifth most important basic reason for the existence of nonmetropolitan schools) can be perceived to be more important in certain instances.

A small majority of 51.21 percent did not believe that schools should simply accept community values without making an attempt to "elevate" the concerns of parents and school board members. 29.26 percent were in favor of accepting community values as they are while 19.51 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 20 was rejected.

Hypothesis 21: Schools should constantly reassess employment situations within the community to determine what kinds of vocational programs are needed and make them available to

students.

A basic reason for the existence of school, voted fourth in importance for nonmetropolitan schools, was preparation for a job or vocational education. A staggering 97.56 percent favored constantly reassessing employment situations and making needed vocational programs available to students. Their was no opposition to this idea. 2.43 percent either didn't know or didn't respond. Hypothesis 21 was accepted.

Hypothesis 22: It is important for students to learn social skills in nonmetropolitan schools.

If local opinion favors a "back to basics" movement, then social skills would apparently form part of the "basics." Nonmetropolitans overwhelmingly favor the idea that social skills are important in their schools. 92.68 percent support the idea while only 2.43 percent were against it. 4.87 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 22 was accepted.

Hypothesis 23: In planning the curriculum, nonmetropolitan schools should involve parents, teachers, administrators, and students.

The liberal concept of broad participation is solidly supported by nonmetropolitans for curriculum planning. Their was no opposition to this idea, and an overwhelming 95.12 percent majority were in favor of the idea. 4.87 percent did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 23 was accepted.

Hypothesis 24: Small nonmetropolitan schools are able

to gain community support for innovative programs when the community is convinced that the programs or curriculum is both educationally valid and worth the cost.

A healthy majority felt that the nonmetropolitan community will give financial support to innovative programs when convinced of their worth, even in the face of traditional financial difficulties in nonmetropolitan communities.

87.80 percent felt that the nonmetropolitan community will come up with the money to support valid and worthy innovative programs in their schools. 9.75 percent did not believe this to be true, and 2.43 percent either did not know or did not respond to the item. Hypothesis 24 was accepted.

Hypothesis 25: The amount of operating funds and capital that are needed are available to nonmetropolitan schools.

The traditional financial difficulties of nonmetropolitan communities is reaffirmed by the local reaction to this hypothesis. A small majority felt that needed funds and capital are not available. While 39.02 percent felt that needed funds and capital are available to nonmetropolitan schools, 51.21 percent did not feel this was true. 9.75 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 25 was rejected.

Perceived Characteristics Hypotheses

Reactions to hypotheses 26 through 40 are presented in Table II, arbitrarily labelled as perceived characteristics.

TABLE III

REACTION TO PERCEIVED CHARACTERISTICS HYPOTHESES

No.	For	Against	?	Accepted	Rejected
26	51.21	41.46	7.31	x	
27	65.85	29.26	4.87	x	
28	24.39	60.97	14.63		x
29	43.90	48.78	12.19		x
30	39.02	39.02	21.75		x
31	73.17	19.51	7.31	x	
32	73.17	21.75	4.87	x	
33	48.78	41.46	9.75		x
34	14.63	78.04	7.31		x
35	46.34	43.90	9.75		x
36	46.34	39.02	14.63		x
37	63.41	29.26	7.31	x	
38	39.02	48.78	12.19		x
39	90.24	4.87	4.87	x	
40	63.41	29.26	4.87	x	

Hypothesis 26: Schools try to do too many things.

It is interesting to compare local reactions to several other hypotheses with the reaction to this hypothesis. For instance, the reactions to hypotheses 13, 14, 15, 21, 22, and 23 indicate a desire for an enriched curriculum with broad participation in the planning of the curriculum; however, the reaction to this hypothesis indicates that local schools are perceived as doing too many things. A slight majority shared in this perception of the schools. 51.21 percent felt that schools try to do too many things while a sizeable 41.46 percent disagreed, and 7.31 percent either did not know or did not respond to this view. Hypothesis 26 was accepted.

Hypothesis 27: Schools are not firm enough in student

grading policies.

A significant 65.85 percent believe that it is a characteristic of nonmetropolitan schools not to be firm enough in student grading policies. Apparently 29.26 percent feel that schools are firm enough, and 4.87 percent either did not know or failed to respond. Hypothesis 27 was accepted.

Hypothesis 28: A distinguishing mark of nonmetropolitan children is honesty; another is truthfulness.

During personal interviews respondents repeatedly described nonmetropolitan children as honest and truthful. However, 60.97 percent of the respondents to the questionnaire did not see honesty and truthfulness as distinguishing marks of their children. Nearly one fourth did. 24.39 percent agreed that nonmetropolitan children are honest and truthful, and 14.63 percent didn't know or didn't respond. Hypothesis 28 was rejected.

Hypothesis 29: Nonmetropolitan children yearn for intellectual stimulation and greater access to new resources.

Opinion was split on this issue. There was no clear majority on either side. While 43.90 percent felt that their children yearn for intellectual stimulation and access to new resources, 48.78 percent disagreed, and 12.19 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 29 was rejected.

Hypothesis 30: Nonmetropolitan schools do not have as much trouble with absenteeism and nonenrollment of students as metropolitan schools.

Designed as a covert measurement of biased enthusiasm in favor of their own children, this hypothesis describes a characteristic that statistics show to be false. In fact, statistics suggest that the opposite is true. Local response was not blindly supportive of nonmetropolitan children, however. 21.75 percent admitted that they did not know or failed to respond to this item, while their was an equal split of 39.02 percent between those that agreed and those that disagreed with the statement. Hypothesis 30 was rejected.

Hypothesis 31: Nonmetropolitans would rather send their children to a nonmetropolitan school than to a larger and wealthier metropolitan school.

Nearly three fourths of the respondents believe this to be characteristic of nonmetropolitan parents. 73.17 percent clearly favored sending their children to a nonmetropolitan school even when larger and wealthier metropolitan schools were available. 19.51 percent disagreed, and 7.31 percent either did not know or failed to respond. Hypothesis 31 was accepted.

Hypothesis 32: There is a close-knit relationship between home and school in a nonmetropolitan community.

A clear majority of local opinion appears to believe in the existence of a close-knit relationship between home and school in their community. 73.17 percent felt this way; 21.75 percent disagreed, and 4.87 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 32 was accepted.

Hypothesis 33: Nonmetropolitans prefer more innovative teachers with new methods rather than more "traditional" teachers in their schools.

Though more respondents agreed with this statement than disagreed, this hypothesis failed to win majority support. 48.78 percent agreed; 41.46 percent disagreed; 9.75 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 33 was rejected.

Hypothesis 34: Nonmetropolitan teachers too often use their positions to make a living until more attractive positions are available.

There was clear rejection to this allegation. 78.04 percent were opposed to the statement. 14.63 percent agreed, and 7.31 percent didn't know or didn't respond. Hypothesis 34 was rejected.

Hypothesis 35: Too many nonmetropolitan teachers gossip too much.

While 46.34 percent felt that local teachers gossip too much, 43.90 percent disagreed, and 9.75 percent either did not respond or did not know. Hypothesis 35 was rejected.

Hypothesis 36: Nonmetropolitan teachers are watched more closely than are teachers elsewhere.

There was a 46.34 percent agreement that nonmetropolitan teachers are watched more closely than other teachers, but 39.02 percent felt otherwise, and 14.63 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 36 was rejected.

Hypothesis 37: Nonmetropolitan residents place confidence and respect in the school board and its ability to deal with school problems.

Most local residents appear to have confidence in their school board. 63.41 percent agreed that their is local confidence and respect for the school board and its ability. 29.26 percent disagreed, and 7.31 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 37 was accepted.

Hypothesis 38: The present method of financing schools is satisfactory.

Opinion was split on whether the present method of financing schools is satisfactory. 39.02 percent felt that the present method was alright, but 48.78 percent did not think it was. 12.19 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 38 was rejected.

Hypothesis 39: Nonmetropolitan school districts should be guaranteed a fair share of federal education funds that are now controlled by the state.

Local reaction is clearly in favor of guaranteeing a fair share of state controlled federal dollars to nonmetropolitan schools. 90.24 percent agreed with this idea. Only 4.87 percent did not agree, and 4.87 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 39 was accepted.

Hypothesis 40: Nonmetropolitan teachers are highly respected.

It is characteristic of the local community that they

highly respect their teachers, according to 63.41 percent of the respondents. 29.26 percent disagreed, and 4.87 percent either did not know or did not respond. Hypothesis 40 was accepted.

Evaluation of Nonmetropolitan Schools

When asked to grade the local school system with an A, B, C, D, or F grade, using A as the highest grade, an overwhelming majority graded the schools with a B or better grade, and nearly a third of the respondents assigned the local schools the grade of A.

Apparently dissatisfaction with nonmetropolitan schools is extremely low among local residents. Hypotheses 31, 32, 37, and 40 indicate that local teachers and school board members are highly respected, there is a close-knit relationship between home and school, and local residents would choose to send their children to the local schools over larger and wealthier metropolitan schools. In addition, 31.70 percent evaluated their local schools with the grade of A while 46.34 percent assigned the local schools the grade of B. That makes a respectable 78.04 percent who believe their schools deserve one of the two highest grades, and no one felt the schools deserved a failing grade of F.

A small percentage, 2.43 percent, split their grading for various schools within the district between B and C.

14.63 percent assigned the local schools a grade of C, and 4.8 percent assigned the grade of D. 2.43 percent either

did not know or did not respond.

Following is a summary of the grades assigned to the local school system and the percentage assigning each grade: A: 31.70%; B: 43.90%; B or C: 2.43%; D: 4.87%; F: 0%; ?: 2.43%.

Need for Improvement

When invited to list, in as few words as possible, improvements that respondents would like to see in their local schools, a majority of 60.97 percent accepted the invitation. Following are the responses:

1. Additional classroom space, auditorium, and better teachers

2. Better facilities, shorter hours for elementary students

3. More money, raising the professional value of teachers to correspond to other professions (doctor, lawyer, etc.) in prestige, salary, etc.

4. More U.S. history should be included in the curriculum; more science in the middle school; teachers should get more support from parents and administrators - especially in academic areas; shorter school year - little, if any, education goes on after May 30 in a rural area, absenteeism increases because of planting and growing; curriculum should include more advanced classes for the better student - (outside of advanced study classes)

5. Smaller classes

6. Less emphasis on sports, more on academics; develop a method to combat absenteeism (pupil and teacher); better or greater correlation in each curriculum - that is from school to school

7. Better equipment - buildings and class equipment; classes in a wider variety of subjects

8. Better selection of teachers, administrators, and general school personnel

9. More money; promoting policy

10. More instructional supplies and equipment made available; more teachers and programs in vocational areas; better relationship between school personnel and local board

11. More funds available for materials for classrooms

12. More inservice classes in the teaching of reading and phonics; for it to be necessary to obtain a parent's permission to retain a child; an inservice class for teachers taking student teachers

13. Smaller classes; substitute teachers available when needed; music teacher in all classes; speech teacher available to all who need it; junior high children in a building away from younger children

14. More values taught in school; more professionalism in school and non-school settings for teachers

15. Improved facilities - buildings, furniture, allow teachers freedom in designing curriculum - especially content areas - integration of subjects

16. Improvement of physical plant with special interest given to libraries, gymnasiums and additional classrooms; additional improvements in the curriculum

17. More vocational training for the marginal student, male and female; smaller classes; more input from teachers in the use of funds; more planning time for teachers; improvement in facilities

18. Visual aids; exchange students; more classes in vocational training; more envolvement by teacher; less bussing

19. Worthwhile inservice for teachers; non-graded primary schools, no letter grades for elementary students; these being replaced by parent-teacher conferences only

20. More opportunities for foreign languages, especially in lower grades. (Spanish should be available, since the U.S. is rapidly moving to its largest minority group being Spanish speaking.); Diversity in physical education - explore bowling, golfing, volleyball, handball, tennis, fishing, dancing, etc.

21. Reorganization: to K-5, 6-8, 9-12 organizational plan; continuation of continuing education with its emphasis of attaining the objectives of a sound needs assessment; continued and increased involvement of the various publics

22. A better pay system for teachers so as to recruit better qualified people into teaching

23. Facilities need up-dated in many area; smaller class sizes; increase expenditures for instructional supplies; less emphasis on athletics

24. Greater emphasis on keeping students in school (reducing the number of dropouts) by making the curriculum more relevant to needs of students, possibly by greater cooperation between school, community and parents; program for sex education; program for prevention of using drugs, alcohol and smoking, and/or working with students involved in the above

25. Deemphasize athletic program - give more attention to academic program

CHAPTER V

SUMMARY, CONCLUSIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

Summary

Rural education has been subjected to too much negative criticism and not enough practical assistance. Small church colleges are in a position to offer needed assistance because of their geographical and philosophical vantage ground. A religious emphasis on transformation through servanthood offers a promising model for such assistance, especially when servanthood implies offering requested assistance rather than imposing unwanted help. However, teacher education programs within church related colleges need to help in the effort to increase the professional status of teachers while helping the college, at the same time, to improve the academic legitimacy of the undergraduate curriculum through a purification of the liberal arts.

Following an administrative internship, forty people were interviewed. A questionnaire based upon interview comments was designed. The questionnaire was mailed to eighty nine selected persons. There were forty one responses, a return of forty six percent, to the questionnaire.

Results of the questionnaire showed that the single most important reason identified for the existence of schools in a nonmetropolitan community is mental development. The next five most important basic reasons identified for the existence of rural schools, in order of importance, are:

molding students into functional members of the existing society; developing utilitarian skills for real life; preparation for a job; molding society into a better place for people; and developing a value system.

Several means for improving the professional status of teachers through an improved teacher education program appear to have the support of the local public.

Local respondents favored the idea of a practical experience prior to student teaching for the purposes of learning how to handle student discipline problems and determining whether teaching is the right profession.

There is also local support for a course which familiarizes prospective nonmetropolitan teachers with the culture of nonmetropolitan people.

In addition, they want teachers to know how to use fire extinguishers and the techniques of first aid. They also want the college to impress upon potential teachers the importance of professionalism and high public image both in and outside of school. They favor teacher home visitations and community participation by teachers.

Local opinion does not appear to favor the requirement of a Master's Degree for becoming a teacher, nor does it favor the training of animals as a part of the college preparation for teaching. In addition, respondents do not support the idea of recruiting prospective teachers from the high schools.

There is no overwhelming desire for more "innovative" rather than more "traditional" teachers in the local schools. Respondents do not believe that their teachers gossip too much or use their jobs as stepping stones to more attractive positions. They don't think their teachers hold expectations that are too high for the students, and they don't believe that nonmetropolitan teachers are watched more closely than teachers elsewhere.

They don't think their children are characteristically honest and truthful or that they yearn for more intellectual stimulation and greater access to new resources. They don't believe in accepting community values when there is need to "elevate" parents and school board members. They don't believe their schools are adequately prepared to deal with physical and mental handicaps, and they don't believe that their schools have solved the problems of absenteeism and nonenrollment of students or that there is an adequate amount of operating funds and capital to run their schools or that the present system for financing their schools is satisfactory.

They do believe that nonmetropolitan schools should be guaranteed a fair share of state controlled federal educational funds and that their community is prepared to offer financial support to valid and worthy innovative programs in the schools.

They want their schools to constantly reassess the local employment situation to determine the kinds of vocational

programs that are needed and make them available to students.

They want the school to teach their children how to get along without modern conveniences and to supply them with skills that will prepare them for both rural and urban life.

Although they believe that schools try to do too many things, they do not want the schools to concentrate on fewer subjects. They want their children to learn social skills in school, and they want the schools to offer a wide variety of subjects, even in the first three grades. They want broad participation in curriculum planning, and they feel that the schools have not been firm enough in their grading policies.

They grade their nonmetropolitan schools with high marks and prefer to send their children there even if larger and wealthier metropolitan schools are available. They want teachers who live in the community and understand the problems and traditions of the community. They believe that the local schools recruit highly competent teachers and administrators; they respect the teachers and have confidence in the school board. They believe that a close-knit relationship exists between the home and school in their community.

Conclusions

It was not the intent of this study to suggest that the college curriculum should be designed on the basis of public whims, but rather that advice from a local constituency might serve to inform the college community of locally perceived needs and concerns.

For the sake of brevity, a number of conclusions were intertwined with the results of the study reported in Chapter IV.

Local opinion appears to favor upgrading the professicnal preparation of teachers through a modification of courses, experiences, and program emphasis designed specifically to produce better practitioners, as long as the modifications are accomplished within the framework of a Bachelor's degree. Perhaps the future will see a change in the local sentiment and there will be an obvious desire for the first college or university in the state to raise professional entry requirements in teaching to a Master's degree level. Presently, however, local attitudes seem more closely aligned to a model resembling the one described by Jonathan Sher for the preparation of rural teachers than to the models described by Robert Howsam or Lawrence Cremin.

This study has resulted in four major conclusions:

1. It is important for every institution to have a clear understanding of its mission and for every program within the institution to relate to that mission. To transform through service is a church related stance that appears viable for the teacher education program.

2. The college should support efforts of the teacher education program to substantially upgrade the professional preparation of teachers.

3. The college should, with equal vigor, resist premature teacher education specialization in the undergraduate curriculum.

4. The teacher education program should be modified in an attempt to prepare better teachers, especially better teachers for rural, or nonmetropolitan, schools.

Curriculum Model

The following proposal is offered in the belief that, if implemented, it will serve to help transform schools into better systems, especially nonmetropolitan schools, through the preparation of teachers of an obviously higher professional demeanor.

The proposal calls for increased requirements and modification of sequence and emphasis in the teacher education program. The proposed model will be outlined with recommendations for implementation confined to a framework of existing course titles. Future recommendations may be forthcoming if faculty consensus indicates their appropriateness.

The model calls, first, for all professional education courses in the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers to be modified to include a segment or segments of emphasis dealing with nonmetropolitan, or rural, concerns.

An example of at least one possibility for modification is offered to instructors of the following courses:

1. In Foundations of Education, an emphasis can be given to rural history, philosophy, and sociology of educa-

tion.

2. In Human Growth and Development, an emphasis can be given to rural poverty and the resulting nutritional needs of rural children.

3. In Educational Psychology, an emphasis can be given to the effects of negativism toward rural children and communities, the concept of the self fulfilling prophecy toward rural children, and the need for teachers to emphasize the positive aspects of rural communities rather than the negative in order to help instill a positive self concept in rural students.

4. In Curriculum, an emphasis can be given to the development of both a sound educational curriculum and appropriate teaching materials for rural schools.

5. In Audio-Visual Methods, an emphasis can be given to the development of inexpensive "little media" for rural schools, including slides, tapes, transparencies, and the use of radio.

6. In General Methods, an emphasis can be given to the principles and methods which seem to work best when teaching rural children and to the use of teacher made materials that are appropriate for rural schools.

7. In Special Methods, an emphasis can be given to the development of appropriate curriculum, materials and methods for use in nonmetropolitan schools.

8. In Measurement and Evaluation, an emphasis can be given to the use of a firm but fair approach in the evaluation of rural children.

9. In the Teaching of Reading, an emphasis can be given to teaching reading from rural, often outdated and inappropriate, textbooks to nonmetropolitan children, and the use of appropriate supplemental reading materials.

10. In Student Teaching, students can be placed in nonmetropolitan schools with supervising teachers who work well with rural children.

The model, secondly, calls for a resequencing of courses. Integrity of the liberal college depends on cooperation of all segments of the academic community in resisting premature specialization in the undergraduate curriculum. An illiterate and unknowledgeable teacher presents a deplorable example to students. Teachers need a strong background of general knowledge as well as a strong professional preparation. Modification of course sequence is proposed for both reasons. A general background in the liberal arts prior to admission to a strengthened professional program necessitates a resequencing of courses. For instance, the "block" is moved from the senior year to the junior year.

Third, the model calls for an expansion of professional requirements through an increase in the student teaching experience and the requirement of Appalachian Studies for secondary education students and elementary education majors

not minoring in early education or special education. The proposal doubles the length of the student teaching experience and places it in the spring semester only. The senior "block" of classes is eliminated by an increase from half a semester to a full semester of student teaching. A junior "block" of courses is formed which comprises the majority of professional education courses for secondary education students and for elementary education majors not minoring in early education or special education.

Tables IV through VII outline the increased requirements and modification of sequence, but the concept of a junior "block" needs additional clarification.

The proposed junior "block" is comprised of 14 semester hours of course work for secondary education majors and 15 semester hours of course work for elementary education majors. All courses in the junior "block" are proposed to be offered in the afternoon with mornings devoted to campus oriented and school oriented field experiences.

The proposed "block" will meet seven hours a day for five days a week from approximately 8 a.m. until 4 p.m. with an hour lunch period. The afternoon hours will be devoted to course work as presented in Tables IV through VII, and because there will be no student teaching during the first semester, college staff who normally supervise student teachers will be assigned meetings during the morning hours with the "block" for conducting a field experience rivaling student teaching

in the in-depth involvement of students in educational experiences. However, the field experience will be preparatory for actual student teaching rather than a duplication at an earlier stage. Details of this experience will have to be worked out with local school officials, but the following description will serve to present the concept of the junior "block" field experience and distinguish it from the student teaching experience.

The junior "block" field experience will begin with a campus oriented phase, then move into a school oriented phase, and conclude with another campus oriented phase. It is visualized that the school oriented phase will comprise approximately half of the semester, allowing all afternoon classes to be complemented by a school oriented experience, and that both campus oriented phases will comprise the other half semester.

The campus oriented phase will be divided into about four components, distinct in their functions but overlapping in the order of activities. The four components might be described as: (1) a skill component, (2) a component comprised of guest presentations and discussion, (3) a component dealing with school and community involvement, and (4) a component for sharing experiences among students involved.

The skill component of the daily field experience will deal with such matters as the care and use of fire extinguishers, what to do and who to call upon in the matter of minor

student injuries, the development of self-made teaching materials such as color slides, cassette tapes, overhead transparencies, instructional games and simulations, and bulletin board maintenance. The skill component will also deal with the construction of a detailed outline lesson plan and other matters.

The second component will comprise guest presentations and discussions concerned with federal, state, and local educational roles. Guests will be invited to speak on the role of the Department of Health, Education, and Welfare; the state board and state department of education; about methods of financing schools, teacher certification, and local school organization and policies, as well as a number of other topics.

The school and community component will call for student observations in both elementary and secondary schools plus "block" student classroom presentations of the same self-prepared teaching materials to various classes in several local schools. Students will begin their presentation circuit in small teams and end with individual performances. Home visitations and various community meetings may also be scheduled.

The fourth campus oriented component will allow students to share their triumphs and disappointments with one another and with senior students who have had similar experiences.

The school oriented phase of the junior field experi-

ence will be divided into at least three components, including, perhaps, (1) an observational and supervisory aid component, (2) a classroom involvement component, and (3) a pre-student teaching component.

The school oriented observational and supervisory aid component might call for activities such as riding on a school bus and assisting in the supervision of school bus arrivals; assisting in supervising halls, playgrounds, lunch rooms, libraries, assemblies, etc.; observations in several classes within a school, etc.

The classroom involvement component might include a repetition of the presentation of self-prepared teaching materials in several different classrooms in one school; preparation of bulletin boards; minor record keeping; assisting substitute teachers; and other activities within various classrooms in one school building.

Finally, the pre-student teaching component would involve observations and experiences for several weeks in one particular classroom. This experience might include classroom presentations of short durations from a detailed lesson plan, small group instruction and assistance, and finally a week or so of actual student teaching.

All phases of the field experience would include the performance of assignments given by instructors of the afternoon classes and close supervision by college staff who normally supervise student teachers.

The junior "block" will not only be designed to prepare students for the student teaching experience, which itself will be greatly improved by doubling its length, but also to allow prospective teachers to learn to handle student discipline from first hand experience. In addition, the junior block will give students a basis for deciding whether teaching is the right profession for them a full year and a half earlier than is usually the case.

The proposed curriculum model is designed for better utilization of existing staff. By limiting the junior "block" to the fall semester and the student teaching experience to the spring semester, there will be sufficient departmental staff to supervise one experience as closely as the other. In fact, it is visualized that graduate assistants may be used to make observational reports dealing with both experiences, in which case both the pre-student-teaching and the student teaching experiences may be more closely supervised than either has ever been.

Tables IV through VII present the proposed curriculum model. Table IV presents the model for secondary education students. Table V presents the model for elementary education majors; Table VI for early education minors; and Table VII for special education (MR) minors.

TABLE IV

PROPOSED CURRICULUM FOR SECONDARY EDUCATION STUDENTS

Freshman Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Humanities 1	4	Humanities 2	4
English 1	3	Speech 2	3
Social Science 1	3	Math 4 or 5	3
Physical Education 13	2	Social Science Elective	3
Physical Education 1	1	Elective	3
Religion Elective	3		
	16		16

Sophomore Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Bio., Chem., or Phy. Sc.	3	Bio, Chem, or Phy. Sci.	3
Philosophy Elective	3	Social Science Elective	3
Social Science Elective	3	Elective	3
Physical Education 1	1	Elective	3
Elective	3	Elective	3
Elective	3		
	16		15

Junior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Morning Field Exp's. campus and school		Education 13	2
		Education 34	1-3
		Elective	3
Ed 1 (1st ½ sem. PM)	3	Elective	3
Ed 17 (1st ½ sem. PM)	2	Elective	3
Ed 21 (1st ½ sem. PM)	1	Elective	3
Ed 9 (1st ½ sem. PM)	3		15-17
Ed 19 (2nd ½ sem. PM)	2		
Ed 6 (2nd ½ sem. PM)	3		
	14		

Senior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Education 21 (cont.)	2	Education 23	12
Sociology 3	3		
Elective	3		
Elective	3		
Elective	3		
Elective	3		
	17		12

(Plus two teaching fields, one 7-12 or K-12, and enough electives to total 128 hours)

TABLE V

PROPOSED CURRICULUM FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION MAJOR

Freshman Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Humanities 1	4	Humanities 2	4
English 1	3	Sociology 1	3
Social Science 1	3	Speech 2	3
Music 5	4	Math 4	3
Physical Education 13	2	Religion Elective	3
	16		16

Sophomore Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Math 5	3	Economics 1	3
Philosophy Elective	3	History 22	3
Physical Science 7	3	Physical Science 8	3
Bio. or Phy. Sci.	3	Bio. or Phy. Sci.	3
Physical Education 1	1	Education 14	3
Education 26	3	Physical Education 1	1
	16		16

Junior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Morning Field Exp's. campus and school		Art 7	3
		Physical Education 5	3
		Elective	3
Ed 1 (1st ½ sem. PM)	3	Education 20	2
Ed 16 (1st ½ sem. PM)	3	Education 35	3
Ed 9 (1st ½ sem. PM)	3	Education 18 (cont.)	2
Ed 18 (2nd ½ sem. PM)	3		16
Ed 6 (2nd ½ sem. PM)	3		
	15		

Senior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Library Science 2	3	Education 22	12
Physical Education 20	3		
Sociology 3	3		
Education 36	2		
Elective	3		
Elective	3		
	17		12

(Plus enough electives to bring the total to 128 hours)

TABLE VI

PROPOSED CURRICULUM FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION MAJOR
WITH EARLY EDUCATION N-K MINOR

Freshman Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Humanities 1	4	Humanities 2	4
English 1	3	Sociology 1	3
Social Science 1	3	Economics 1	3
Bio or Phy. Sci.	3	Bio or Phy. Sci.	3
Physical Education 13	2	Math 4	3
Physical Education 1	1	Physical Education 1	1
	16		17

Sophomore Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Physical Science 7	3	Physical Science 8	3
Math 5	3	History 22	3
Music 5	4	Education 14	3
Education 4	3	Education 20	2
Education 26	3	Education 5	3
	16	Religion Elective	3
			17

Junior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
AM Field experiences on campus & in school		Library Science 2	3
		Art 7	3
		Physical Education 5	3
Ed 1 (1st ½ sem, PM)	3	Home Economics 3	3
Ed 16 (1st ½ sem, PM)	3	Education 18 (cont.)	2
Ed 9 (1st ½ sem, PM)	3	Education 35	3
Ed 6 (2nd ½ sem, PM)	3		17
Ed 18 (2nd ½ sem, PM)	3		
	15		

Senior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Physical Education 20	3	Education 22	6
Speech 5	3	Education 38	6
Speech 2	3		12
Philosophy Elective	3		
Education 11	3		
Education 36	3		
	18		

(Plus enough electives to bring the total to 128 hours)

TABLE VII

PROPOSED CURRICULUM FOR ELEMENTARY EDUCATION MAJOR
WITH SPECIAL EDUCATION (MR) MINOR

Freshman Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Humanities 1	4	Humanities 2	4
English 1	3	Sociology 1	3
Social Science 1	3	Economics 1	3
Bio. or Phy. Sci.	3	Bio. or Phy. Sci.	3
Physical Education 13	2	Math 4	3
Physical Education 1	1	Physical Education 1	1
	16		17

Sophomore Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Physical Science 7	3	Physical Science 8	3
Math 5	3	History 22	3
Music 5	4	Speech 2	3
Philosophy Elective	3	Education 14	3
Education 26	3	Education 27	3
	16	Education 20	2
			17

Junior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
AM Field experiences on campus & in school		Library Science 2	3
		Art 7	3
		Physical Education 5	3
Ed 1 (1st ½ sem, PM)	3	Education 18 (cont.)	2
Ed 16 (1st ½ sem, PM)	3	Education 28	3
Ed 9 (1st ½ sem, PM)	3	Education 35	3
Ed 6 (2nd ½ sem, PM)	3		17
Ed 18 (2nd ½ sem, PM)	3		
	15		

Senior Year

First Semester	Cr.	Second Semester	Cr.
Physical Education 20	3	Education 22	6
Religion Elective	3	Education 32	6
Education 29	3		12
Education 30	3		
Education 31	3		
Education 36	3		
	18		

(Plus enough electives to bring the total to 128 hours)

Recommendations

The following recommendations are made for the implementation of a curriculum model for the preparation of better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools:

Departmental Recommendations

Recommendations to the Department of Education are:

1. It is recommended that all professional education courses in the preparation of elementary and secondary teachers be modified to include a segment or segments of emphasis dealing with nonmetropolitan, or rural, concerns.

2. It is recommended that the standard teacher education program be designed for the preparation of nonmetropolitan teachers and that consideration be given to the practicality and desirability of designing an academically strong alternate program for the preparation of metropolitan teachers.

3. It is recommended that early field experiences be designed for the teacher education program that are as closely supervised by college staff as student teaching.

4. It is recommended that communication skills be stressed throughout teacher training, that such skills be reflected in course grades, and that more stress be given to the importance of basic computational skills for all teachers.

5. It is recommended that stress be given, early in the teacher education program, to the preparation of a detailed outline format for lesson planning, and that other formats for lesson planning, including a stress on behavioral objec-

tives, be reserved for late in the program.

6. It is recommended that the idea of professionalism and high public image in both school and non-school settings be stressed throughout the teacher education program.

7. It is recommended that an in-depth pre-student-teaching experience be created for the purpose of preparing prospective teachers for the student teaching experience and for the purpose of allowing the prospective teacher to learn first hand to handle student discipline problems, and also to determine whether teaching is the right profession.

8. It is recommended that the first two years of the undergraduate curriculum be restricted, in-so-far as possible within the confines of licensing and accrediting agencies, to a liberal arts education including especially requirements in English and math as prerequisites for admission to the professional program, and that a conscious effort be made to distinguish between the liberal college education and the professional program.

Curriculum Committee Recommendations

Recommendations to the Curriculum Committee are:

1. It is recommended that the student teaching requirement for elementary and secondary teachers be increased from six hours to twelve hours, from half a semester to a full semester.

2. It is recommended that a junior "block" be created for elementary and secondary teacher education students for

the fall semester of the junior year and that student teaching be restricted to the spring semester of the senior year.

3. It is recommended that a course in Appalachian or rural culture, including a study of rural food, music, dress, language, art, crafts, social customs, characteristics of the people, etc. be required for all secondary education students and all elementary education students not minoring in early education or special education (MR).

APPENDIX A

Non Metropolitan Educational Survey

OPEN-ENDED INQUIRIES

In your opinion:

1. What is the basic reason for the existence of school?

   What is the main thing that schools do? The main thing that teachers do? The main thing that students do? What should be done in school? What shouldn't be done in school? What is the biggest problem in our schools? What is the best thing our schools are doing?

2. Are the schools doing a satisfactory job?

   Is the teaching satisfactory? Is the curriculum satisfactory? Are students doing a satisfactory job by and large? Are the teachers doing a satisfactory job? What changes should be made? Would you rather send your children elsewhere? Would you rather send your children to a larger school district? Do children here get as good an education as in larger schools? Are teachers better in larger schools?

3. Does this community have unique educational concerns?

   Are there community problems that need to be solved? Do teachers need to understand these problems? Do students? Are larger school districts doing a better job? Do some teachers fail here that could do better elsewhere? Do some students? Are there people in this community that don't fit in? Do children get a better education here than in larger schools? Is discipline better in larger schools? Are social conditions better in larger schools?

4. What are the most important subjects offered in school?

   What should be offered that isn't? What shouldn't be offered that is? In case of a financial cutback, what should be cut out first? In case of a financial windfall, what should be added? Is the curriculum stronger in larger schools?

5. How could colleges train teachers better?

   What are the characteristics of a good teacher? Poor teacher? How should teachers be changed? Is there anything that colleges could do to change the teachers they train so that they would be better suited to teach in your community?

APPENDIX B

NONMETROPOLITAN EDUCATIONAL QUESTIONNAIRE

The purpose of this study is to help colleges to prepare better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools by surveying the attitudes of selected residents served by the schools.

Please help by completing this questionnaire and returning it to:

Nonmetropolitan Study
Department of Education
West Virginia Wesleyan College
Buckhannon, West Virginia 26201

Thank you for your help in the preparation of better teachers for nonmetropolitan schools.

PERSONAL DATA: Please supply the following information about yourself.

1. Sex: Male___; Female___
2. Race: White___; Nonwhite___
3. Age: Under 30___; 30 to 50___; Over 50___
4. Education: Grade School___; High School___; College___
5. Parental Data: School Parent___; No children in school___
6. Background: Metropolitan___; Nonmetropolitan___
7. Community Size: Over 50,000___; 2,500 to 50,000___; Under 2,500___
8. State:_____, U.S.A.

PART I DIRECTIONS: Following are a dozen reasons for the existence of school that have been suggested as basic functions or philosophies. Please rank these suggestions from 1 to 12 in order of their importance for nonmetropolitan schools. (Use 1 to indicate the most important suggestion, 2 the next most important, etc.)

___ 1. Preparation for a job (Vocational Education)
___ 2. A safe place to watch over students (Custodial Care)
___ 3. Selection for social roles and social status (Selection & Sorting)
___ 4. Moral Training (Moral Development)
___ 5. Preparation for a future age such as a nuclear-computer era. (Education for the Future)
___ 6. Molding students into functional members of the existing society (Reproduction Philosophy)
___ 7. Molding society into a better place for people (Reconstruction Philosophy)
___ 8. Developing a value system (Value Formation)
___ 9. Developing utilitarian skills for real life (Readjustment Philosophy)
___ 10. Developing skills for an uncertain world of crises (Education for Existence)
___ 11. Mental development (Cognitive Education)
___ 12. Physical development (Physical Education)

NOTE: The term "metropolitan" as used in this questionnaire refers to any large city or the suburban area of a large city. The term "nonmetropolitan" refers to any area that is not a metropolitan area.

PART II DIRECTIONS: Each statement in Part II represents an opinion about nonmetropolitan schools and communities. This is not a test of knowledge or ability. You are asked simply to indicate your opinion of whether you think each statement is true or not. Please mark in front of each statement a T if you believe the statement is true, an F if in your opinion the statement is false, and if you have no preference or do not know, mark ?.

___ 1. Even during the first three years of school, a wide variety of subjects should be offered.
___ 2. Schools should concentrate on fewer subjects.
___ 3. Schools try to do too many things.
___ 4. Schools should attempt to raise children "close to nature" by not only teaching how to get along with, but also how to get along without, modern conveniences.
___ 5. Schools are not firm enough in student grading policies.
___ 6. Nonmetropolitan schools should equip children with skills relevant to both rural and urban life.
___ 7. A distinguishing mark of nonmetropolitan children is honesty, another is truthfulness.
___ 8. Nonmetropolitan children yearn for intellectual stimulation and greater access to new resources.
___ 9. Nonmetropolitan schools do not have as much trouble with absenteeism and nonenrollment of students as metropolitan schools.
___ 10. I would rather send my children to a nonmetropolitan school than to a larger and wealthier metropolitan school.
___ 11. There is a close-knit relationship between home and school in the local community.
___ 12. Teachers need to understand the problems and traditions of the community in which they teach.
___ 13. Teachers should live in the community where they teach.
___ 14. Teachers should participate in community affairs.
___ 15. Teachers in this community are highly respected.
___ 16. I prefer more innovative teachers with new methods rather than more "traditional" teachers in our local schools.
___ 17. Local teachers too often use their positions to make a living until more attractive positions are available.
___ 18. The local schools recruit highly competent teachers and administrators.
___ 19. Too many local school teachers gossip too much.
___ 20. Nonmetropolitan teachers are watched more closely than are teachers elsewhere.
___ 21. Local teachers hold expectations that are too high for students.
___ 22. Nonmetropolitan schools are prepared to deal with physical and mental handicaps.
___ 23. Teachers should be encouraged to visit parents at home.
___ 24. Schools should work with community values rather than trying to "elevate" the concerns of parents and school boards.

___ 25. Schools should constantly reassess employment situations within the community to determine what kinds of vocational programs are needed and make them available to students.
___ 26. It is important for students to learn social skills in school.
___ 27. In planning the curriculum, nonmetropolitan schools should involve parents, teachers, administrators, and students.
___ 28. Local residents place confidence and respect in the school board and its ability to deal with school problems.
___ 29. Small nonmetropolitan schools are able to gain community support for innovative programs when the community is convinced that the programs or curriculum is both educationally valid and worth the cost.
___ 30. The amount of operating funds and capital that are needed are available to local schools.
___ 31. The present method of financing schools is satisfactory.
___ 32. Nonmetropolitan school districts should be guaranteed a fair share of federal education funds that are now controlled by the state.
___ 33. Colleges should impress upon prospective teachers the importance of professionalism and high public image in both school and non school settings.
___ 34. Colleges should recruit prospective teachers from high schools in much the same manner that basketball players are now recruited.
___ 35. Teachers should have some knowledge of first aid for children.
___ 36. Teachers should know how to use fire extinguishers.
___ 37. College Biology or Psychology for prospective teachers should include training of animals for the purpose of acquiring the necessary patience for discipling and for learning the basic techniques and principles of reinforcement.
___ 38. Colleges should require prospective nonmetropolitan teachers to take a course in rural or Appalachian culture which includes a study of rural food, music, dress, language, art, crafts, social customs, characteristics of the people, etc.
___ 39. An experience in "Student Substitute Teaching" prior to Student Teaching would be a good way for the prospective teacher to learn how to handle student discipline problems and to determine whether teaching is the right profession.
___ 40. It would be a good idea for the college preparation of teachers to be increased from four to five years, terminating in a Master's Degree instead of a Bachelor's Degree.

PART III DIRECTIONS: Please indicate your feeling about how good your local school is by grading the school system with an A, B, C, D, or F; A being the highest grade.

___ 1. In my opinion this is the grade the local school system deserves.

PART IV DIRECTIONS: In as few words as possible, list improvements you would like to see in your local schools.

APPENDIX C

The Administrative Decision Making Process

(Summary of an Administrative Internship)

A West Virginia college professor went back home to Texas for four months to study college administration and to visit his family. Dr. Ellis Ivey II, Chairman of the Department of Education at West Virginia Wesleyan College, spent the Fall semester of 1978 involved in a post doctoral administrative internship at Southwestern University in Georgetown, Texas. His wife, Jean, accompanied him. Both are native Texans, and on weekends and holidays they visited friends and relatives. Their married daughter, Mrs. Jill Mills, lives in Spring, Texas, and their two sons, Jon and "Trey," live in Lafayette, Louisiana. His parents, Mr. and Mrs. Ernest Lee Ivey, live in Mineral Wells, Texas, and although her parents are deceased, she has brothers in Dallas and Santa Anna, Texas. They visited these and numerous other friends and relatives, but the reason for the trip was the study of higher educational administration. A former superintendent of schools, Ivey is naturally interested in administration, and this opportunity gave him a chance to study college administration.

A grant from the Advanced Institutional Development

Program at West Virginia Wesleyan College allowed Ivey to take a sabbatical leave to study educational administration in Texas while earning post doctoral credit at West Virginia University. His professor at West Virginia University was Dr. John Andes, and his supervising administrator at Southwestern University was Dr. William B. Jones, Administrative Vice President and University Provost.

A small Methodist liberal arts institution, SU is located 28 miles from Austin, the capitol of Texas. The enrollment is approximately 950 students. The total campus land area is 500 acres, and there are 34 buildings on campus. Made up of two schools, SU has a College of Arts and Sciences and a School of Fine Arts. The plant value is twenty million dollars, and the endowment is slightly more than that, reportedly, a larger endowment than for any other small Methodist institution of higher learning.

Southwestern University, though not a well known institution on a national scale, is historically significant and is located in a historically exciting area. A national investigation a few years ago revealed that more SU graduates are listed in Who's Who than from any other small college or university in the nation. Senator John Tower, a prominent Texan, is an alumnus and serves as a member of the SU Board of Trustees.

Called the "Mother of All Texas Colleges and Universities," Southwestern University is the oldest institution of higher learning in Texas. However, it has undergone name changes through

the years. It was chartered in 1840 before Texas became a state under the name of Rutersville College by the Republic of Texas. It was the first college in what was to become the state of Texas. In 1873, three other Methodist colleges were united with Rutersville to form one central Methodist institution called Texas University. In 1875, the name Texas University was ceded to the State of Texas, and the institution was given its present name of Southwestern University.

Approximately 35 years after receiving its present name, SU became the site for the conception of SMU. It happened that at that time the president of SU was convinced that the institution should pull up roots and relocate in the city of Dallas. When the Board of Trustees disagreed, the president left with about half the faculty, moved to Dallas, and established Southern Methodist University.

In years gone by, Frank and Jesse James rode through the territory where SU is located, and the outlaw Sam Bass is buried in a nearby town where he was shot by a posse after robbing an Austin bank. Captain Robert E. Lee, son of the General, was a visitor of the area, and Sam Houston lived in the town where SU is located. Southwestern University and the surrounding area are rich in history.

The Iveys arrived on the SU campus on the afternoon of August 22, 1978. They spent the first week as visitors in the home of Mr. and Mrs. Kirk Treible, formerly of West Virginia

Wesleyan College. He is now Vice President for Fiscal Affairs at Southwestern University, and he was influential in securing the cooperation of SU for Ivey's four month study.

During the second week the Iveys moved into a guest room especially furnished for them in one wing of the university clinic. The room had twin beds, a desk, a telephone table, a small closet plus a roll-away clothes rack, and a bathroom. In addition, there was a small refrigerator and cook stove in the hall just outside the Ivey's room. Mrs. Ivey followed a plan of spending about a week at the university, then visiting friends and relatives every other week. On weekends and holidays the Iveys were able to make a number of trips together. When she was on campus, she not only recuperated from her many visits, but she also attended numerous university events ranging from formal affairs in the university President's home to the most casual of affairs such as the student-faculty picnic.

The day after their arrival, Dr. Ivey was introduced to Dr. William B. Jones and served as Jones's administrative intern until the Iveys left Southwestern University on December 22, 1978. Dr. Jones established a weekly routine for Ivey which called for regular meetings with students, faculty, and administrators. Ivey and Jones frequently discussed these meetings and especially their administrative significance. Each Monday at noon, Ivey met either with the Faculty Forum

or the Plant Operations supervisors. The Faculty Forum was an informal luncheon for faculty members followed by an intellectual presentation from one of the faculty. The supervisors of Plant Operations met to discuss problems and solutions dealing with the areas of plant maintenance and operations and included supervisors of university maids and custodians, buildings and grounds services, and mechanical services. On Tuesdays at 1 p.m. the Planning Committee met to plan curricular, program, degree, and administrative matters. The Governance Committee, composed of students, faculty, and administrators, met on Wednesday afternoons to study and develop recommendations for improving the university governance system. Then, on Thursdays, university chapel services were held in the morning, and the President's Cabinet met in the afternoon. On Fridays the Plant Operations supervisors met again, and Ivey spent a great deal of time in the university library reading about administrative matters. He also attended numerous called meetings, individual conferences, and special events such as the three day symposium on cosmology which featured nationally prominent scientists such as Dr. John Wheeler from the University of Texas, Dr. Kip Thorne from the California Institute of Technology, and Dr. Harlan Smith of McDonald Observatory. Ivey also received assignments from various members of the President's Cabinet. The "assignments" were actually suggestions or statements that began, "Do you think

you would be interested in..."

Ivey's first assignment consisted of studying the administrative structure at Southwestern University by interviewing each member of the Cabinet and studying the Faculty Handbook and existing administrative flow charts. The study resulted in a detailed analysis of administrative responsibilities at SU, and Ivey developed a series of flow charts as a final product in the course of the assignment depicting these responsibilities. Including the President, there were eight Cabinet members, four of them vice presidents and three of them deans. Ivey developed one flow chart for each member plus one overall flow chart of the entire Cabinet. Then, as a regularly scheduled agenda item for the Cabinet, Ivey presented a complete set of nine flow charts to each Cabinet member and discussed the set with the group. Soon afterwards the Governance Committee invited Ivey to do the same for them.

From a discussion with Dr. Jones about the university legislative system, Ivey was able to prepare a flow chart showing the university's legislative process. He also prepared charts showing line-and-staff relations of all personnel in each Cabinet member's office. There was no apparent demand for these documents, and Ivey had no desire to establish himself as a flow chart specialist. Therefore, after he felt that he had a working knowledge of their contents, he disposed of them.

Prior to the completion of the flow charts, Treible invited Ivey to help develop the university budget, and Ivey

expressed an enthusiastic interest. Treible called a budget planning session in the Board Room for three persons, himself, Ivey, and Mr. Bob Schwartz. Schwartz, Director of Auditing and Auxiliary Services, was formerly the university accountant. He had never developed the budget, but he was familiar with all university accounts. Treible conducted the budget planning meeting by outlining his expectations and then turning the preparation of the budget over to Ivey and Schwartz with the understanding that he would approve each procedure in the budget process step by step.

The budget team of Ivey and Schwartz worked together for the duration of Ivey's stay at Southwestern University in the development of the 1979-1980 budget for Southwestern University. Both of them were engaged in numerous other activities, but they spent some time nearly every day working on the budget. First, they redesigned the budget call documents in an effort to simplify them. Many of the pages of explanation and examples were taken out of the call document package and used instead in the budget explanation meetings. Explanations remaining in the call document package were simplified. All pages of the call document package were standardized in every way possible including size, headings, explanations, etc. Then an attempt was made to give the documents a "finished" or "professional" appearance by cleaning them up and setting them in a better looking type. The budget team carefully planned a series of budget explanation meetings. Overhead

transparencies were developed for each call document. A separate transparency was developed for each document showing an example of the document after it had been filled out. These examples had been part of the call document explanations before the documents had been simplified. Now they became a part of an audio visual presentation designed to explain the use of the documents to the document users. In addition, a special set of detailed instructions were assembled to be handed out during the budget explanation meeting to those expressing a need for them. The detailed instructions also contained document examples. Additional copies of all documents were also prepared. After a careful proofreading of all revised documents, the team prepared a list of questions they thought might be raised at the informational meetings, then planned and practiced an instructional presentation designed to last 45 minutes which utilized overhead transparencies. The team distributed the call documents to all university budget heads with an announcement of the time and place of the budget explanation meetings. Most budget heads attended one of the meetings, and the budget team explained the use of the budget call documents. The completed call documents, or budget requests, were due three weeks after they had been distributed. They were submitted to the appropriate Cabinet officer who then forwarded them to Schwartz in the Business Office.

During the three weeks that budget heads were preparing their requests, the budget team attempted to compile a set of budget figures that would serve as an indicator of whether requested expenditures were equitably distributed and also as a crude barometer of estimated income. The team knew that their figures would be adjusted later by Mr. Treible, the President, and the Board of Trustees, but they felt that good indicators might produce a budget that needed very little adjustment. They chose five separate indicators and developed a "Calibrated Budget Allocation Index." The Index was the result of several hours of brainstorming between the two budget team members. They rejected a number of ideas that sounded promising, such as surveying other institutions or chosen experts to determine what percentage of the budget is or should be allocated for each specific category. During the brainstorming it was determined that budget requests from the various budget heads would be treated in a positive and professional manner, and at no time would the budget team adopt an attitude of mistrust or suspicion of greed toward them. However, the idea of an Index kept recurring, and because it would serve as a justification for all entries made by the budget team and eliminate questions about how certain figures were derived, the Index was compiled. The first column in the Index contained the budget requests submitted in the call documents from the various budget heads. The second column in the

Index contained the present 1978-79 budget allocation plus ten percent. The third column contained figures from the most recent audit for the 1977-78 school year. A fourth indicator was the percentage of the present 1978-79 budget expended at the end of the sixth month. The last indicator in the Index included those known deviations from the past due to retirements, new programs, known gifts, etc. Only one of the indicators contained actual known amounts, those in the third column from the audit. All other indicators were estimations, except perhaps the deviations. The problem with relying too heavily upon the audit figures for the 1977-78 school year is that it is two years removed from the 1979-80 budget. The Index allowed the budget team to compare budget requests with several indicators. At least one of the indicators, it was hypothesized, would serve to justify each figure entered by the budget team in the proposed budget. If justification was missing, the team would circle the figure and call attention to it in a footnote.

Other data that played an important part in the development of the budget included decisions by the Board of Trustees concerning the tuition rate and charges for room and board and the anticipated revenues based upon these known charges. Administrative predictions of student enrollment were also needed to arrive at anticipated revenues.

When call documents were turned in the Index served to justify virtually every budget request. Though several

requests exceeded the ten percent above present budget column, in each case one of the other indicators provided an explanation and served to justify the request. The budget was taking a finished form when Dr. Ivey completed his internship in December. The budget was scheduled to be presented to the Cabinet by Mr. Treible for informal discussion before being presented to the President and the Board of Trustees.

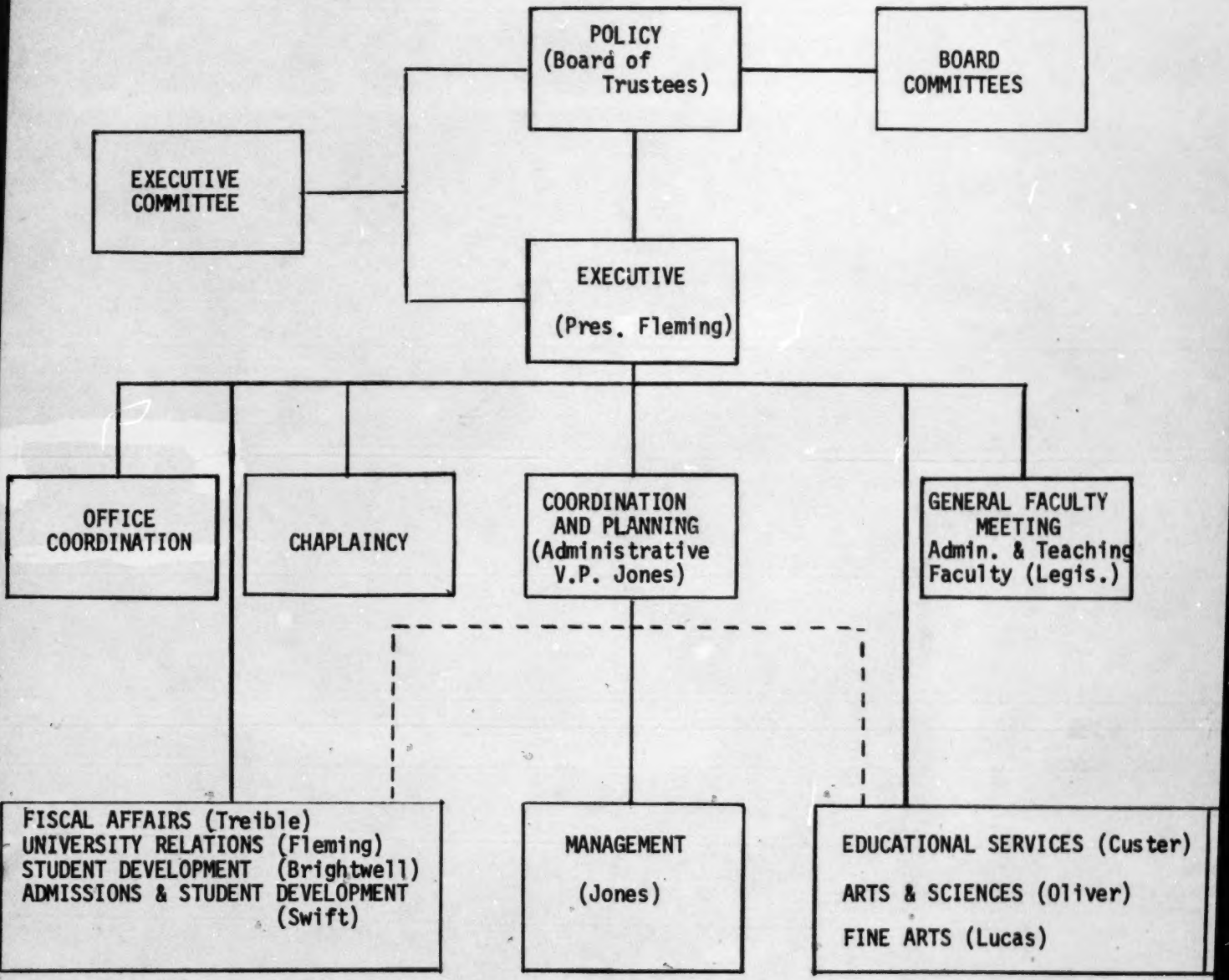
The Cabinet at SU does not serve the function of formally approving a proposal. Each Cabinet member has complete authority and responsibility for decisions made in his or her area. Bringing a matter, such as the budget, to the Cabinet for recommendations does not relieve the Cabinet officer from any degree of responsibility for an error in judgment, even if the entire Cabinet is party to the error. The SU Cabinet exists mainly as a sounding board under the belief that the various members of the Cabinet will make better decisions after having discovered the views of fellow officers. After discovering the sentiment of other Cabinet members, the officer in charge may go against the advice of his colleagues, though this is seldom done. When the President is on campus, he presides over the cabinet meetings. In his absence, Dr. Jones is the presiding officer.

The internship at Southwestern University provided a wealth of experiences from which to study the administrative decision making process. Ivey met regularly with several Cabinet officers in an attempt to expand and clarify descriptions of their responsibilities. He discussed the development

of a Master's Degree with Cabinet officers, witnessed and became involved in the administrative reactions to a dormitory fire, kept a daily journal, and developed a slide presentation of his experiences at Southwestern University.

Two experiences which dealt with administrative decision making are especially noteworthy. Ivey handled the invitations and arrangements for an all day conference titled, "Techniques for Administrative Decision Making." He also researched and wrote a summary of Southwestern University's 1977 energy conservation program. The all day conference included participants from Nebraska Wesleyan University, Texas Wesleyan College, and Austin College. The conference dealt with the role of institutional research, predictions of student achievement, evaluations of equitable faculty salaries, and prediction of future enrollment. The 1977 energy conservation program resulted in a $200,000 reduction in utility bills at Southwestern University. Ivey's narrative of the program was entered in a nationwide contest among colleges and universities with innovative energy conservation programs. The institution taking first prize in the contest will be awarded $10,000.

According to Ivey the administrative internship at Southwestern University in Georgetown, Texas was a most rewarding experience. "The experience was a high point in my professional career," Ivey reports. During the Spring semester of 1979 Ivey will be involved in a research project aimed at preparing better teachers for small schools.


POLICY
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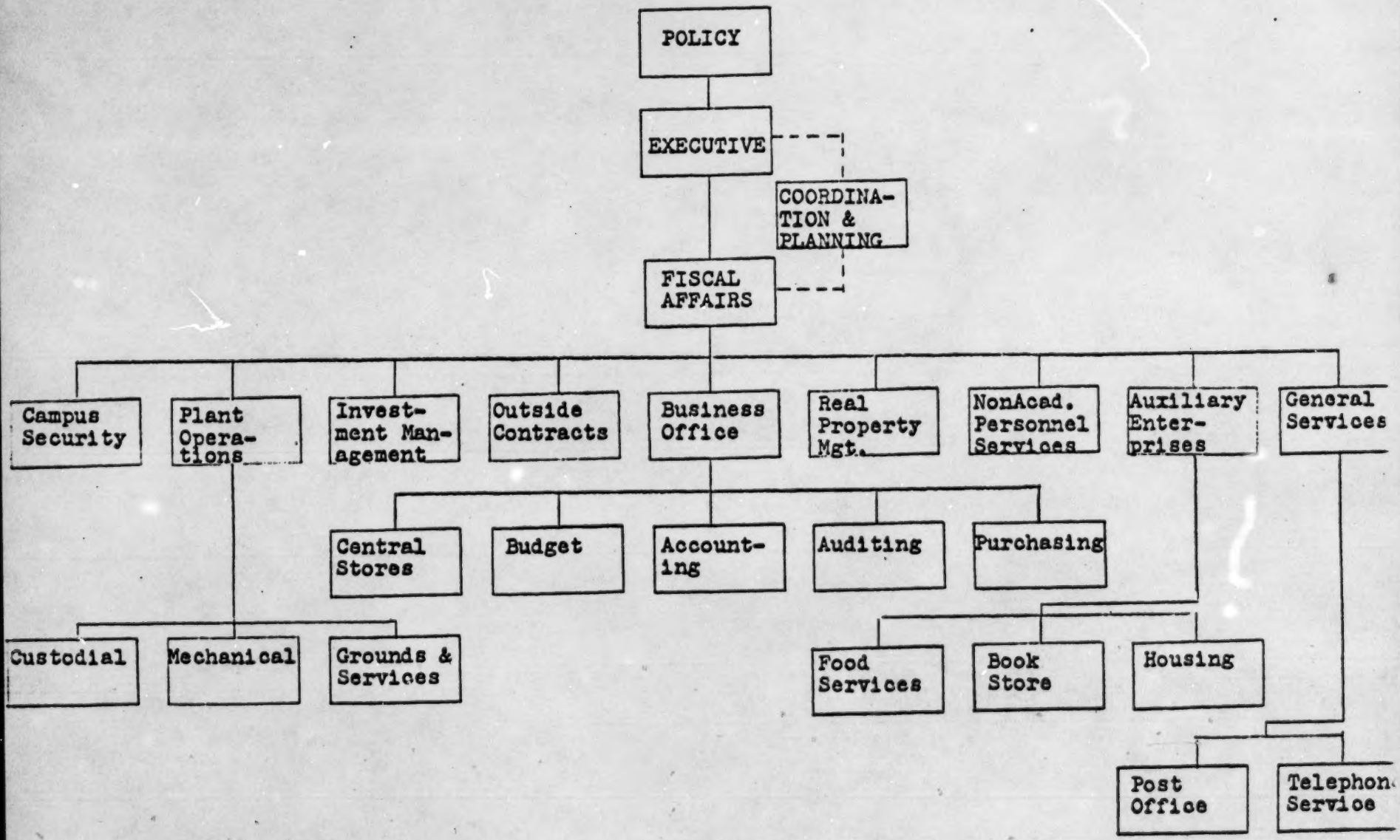
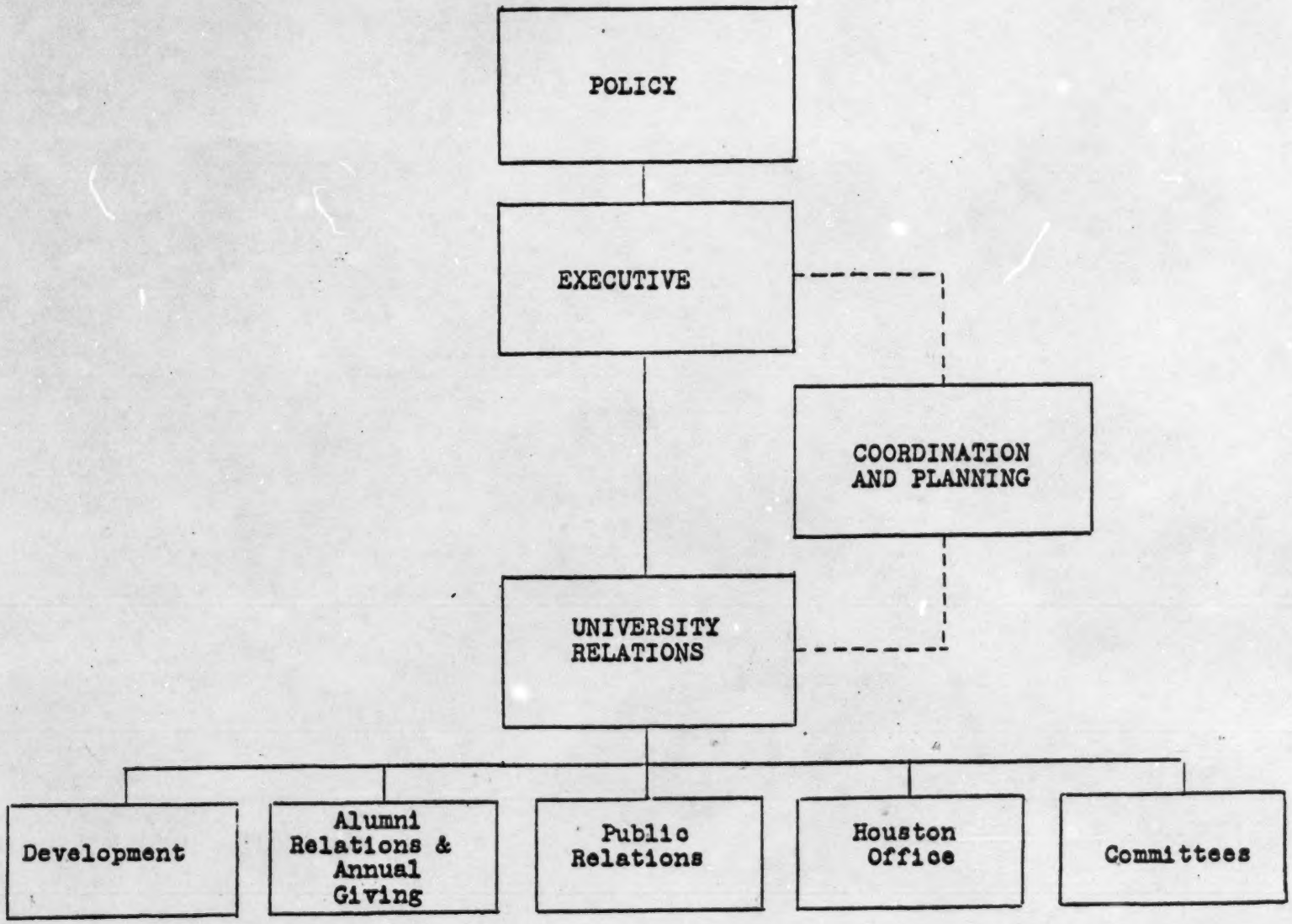
EXECUTIVE
(Pres. Fleming)
OFFICE COORDINATION
CHAPLAINCY
COORDINATION AND PLANNING
(Administrative V.P. Jones)
GENERAL FACULTY MEETING
Admin. & Teaching Faculty (Legis.)
FISCAL AFFAIRS (Treible)
UNIVERSITY RELATIONS (Fleming)
STUDENT DEVELOPMENT (Brightwell)
ADMISSIONS & STUDENT DEVELOPMENT (Swift)
MANAGEMENT
(Jones)
EDUCATIONAL SERVICES (Custer)
ARTS & SCIENCES (Oliver)
FINE ARTS (Lucas)

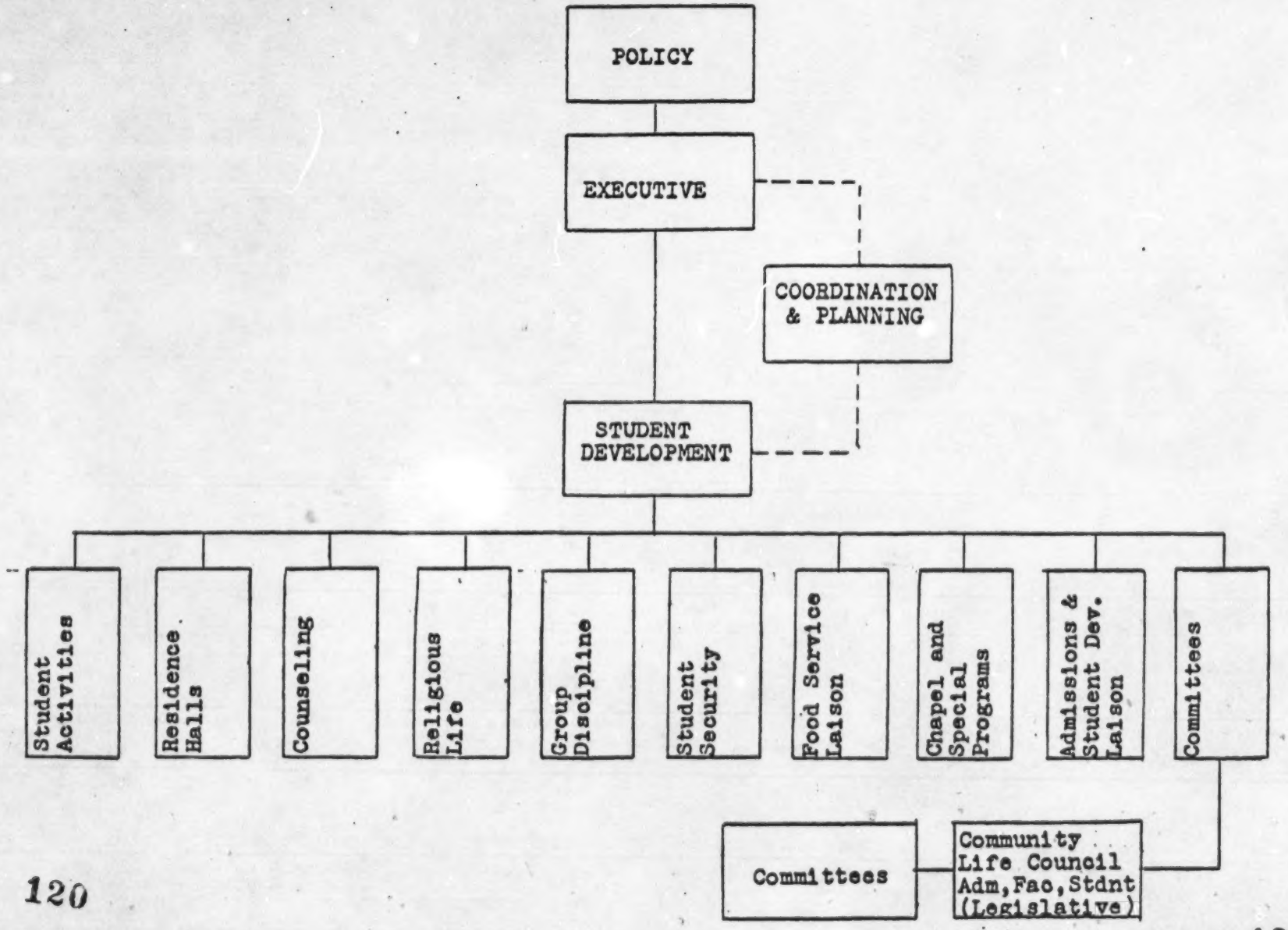
FISCAL AFFAIRS
Vice President Kirk Treible



UNIVERSITY RELATIONS
President Durwood Fleming



STUDENT DEVELOPMENT
Dr. Barbara Brightwell



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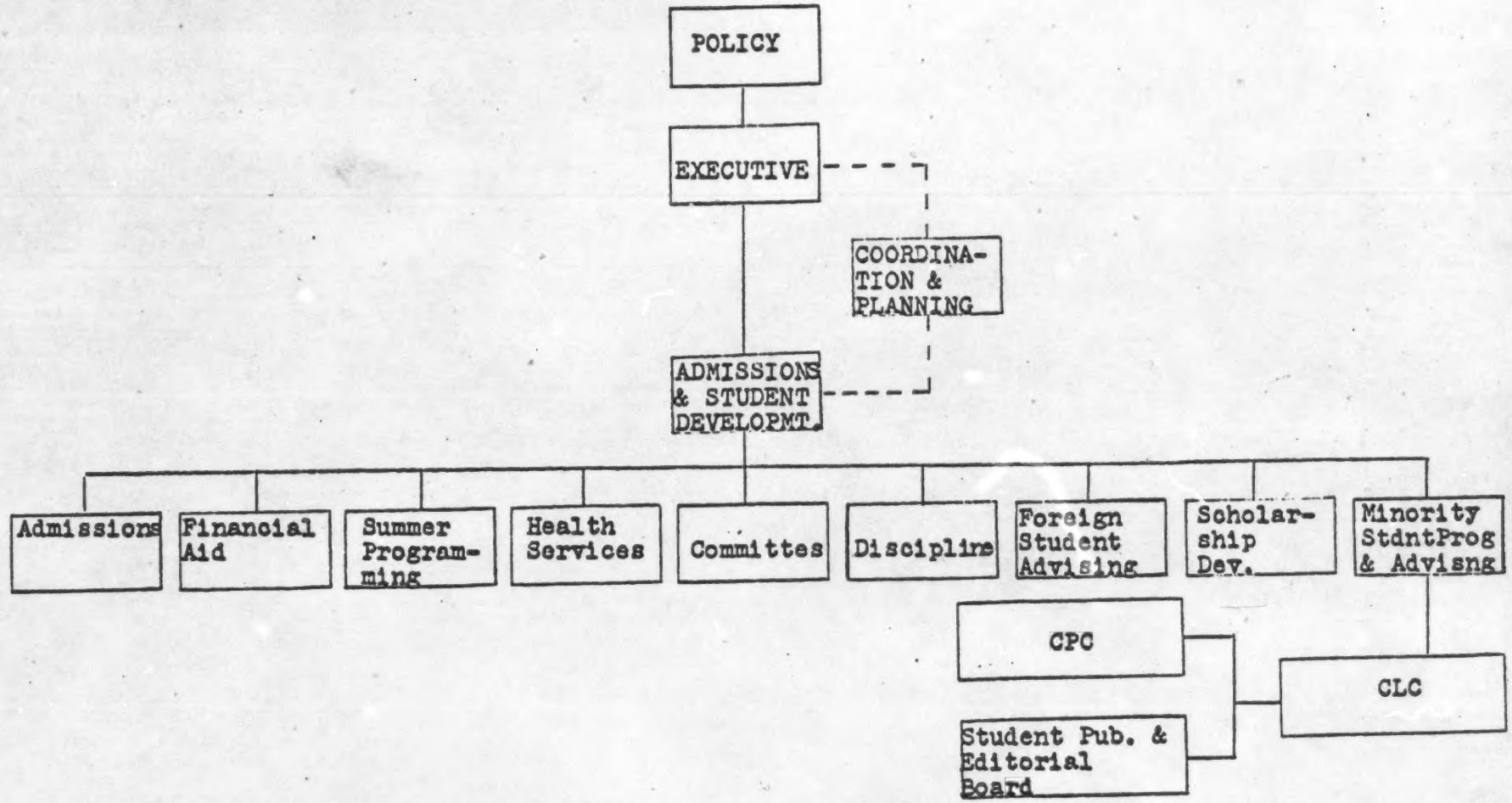
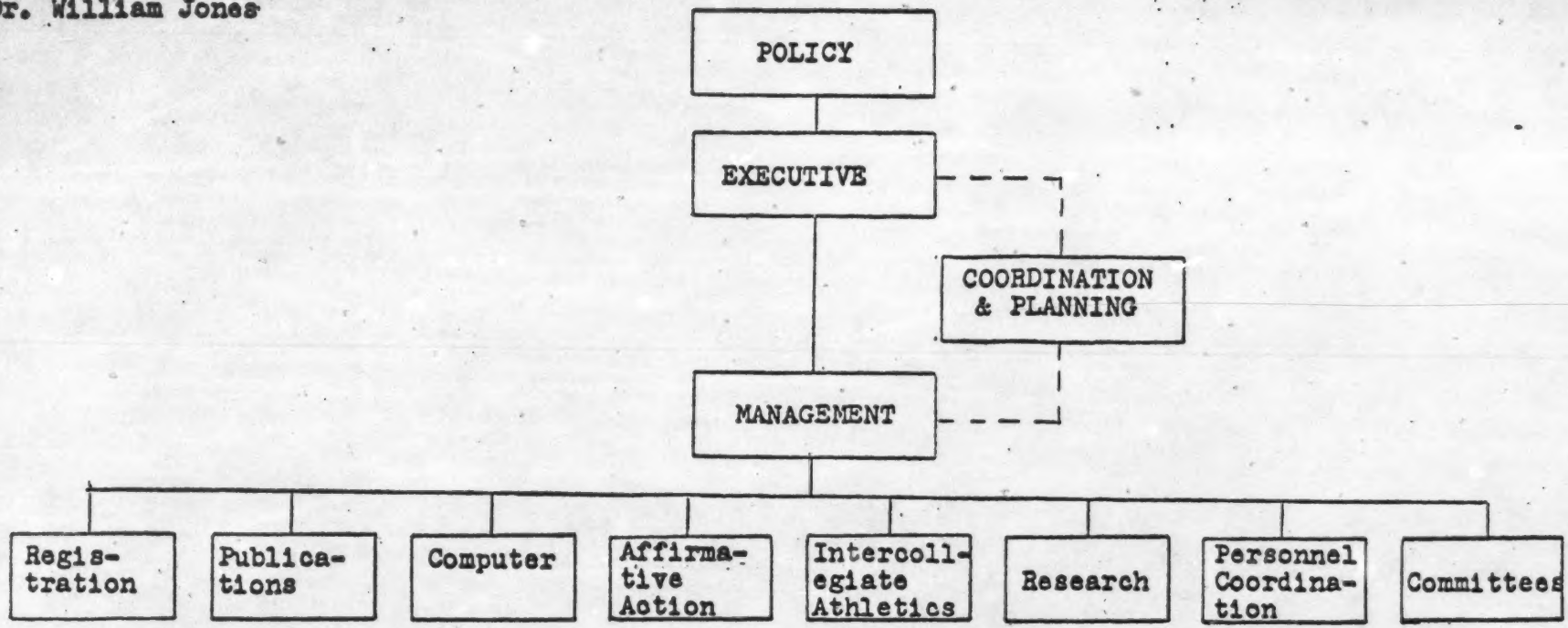
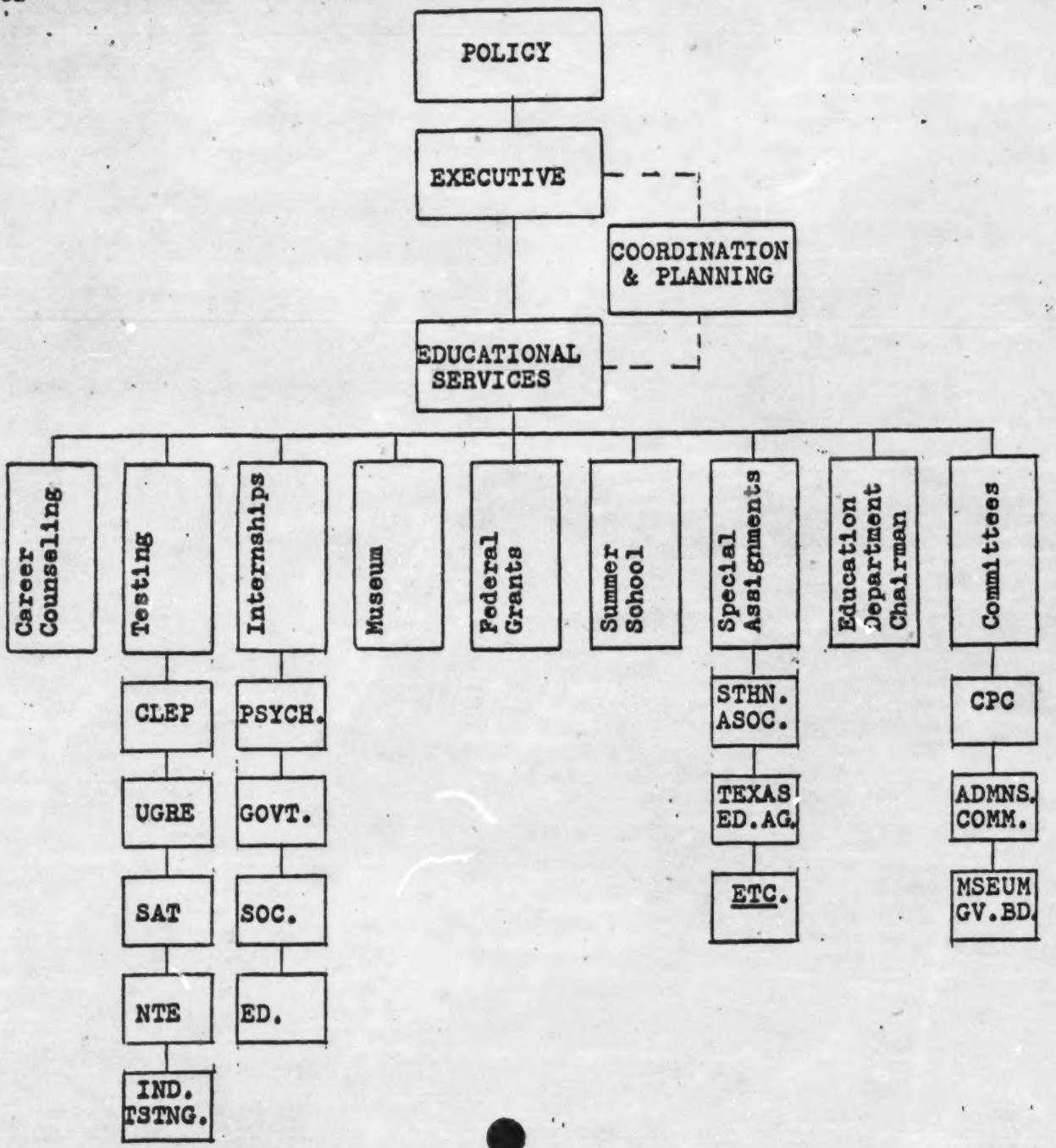
Vice President William Swift



MANAGEMENT
Dr. William Jones



EDUCATIONAL SERVICES
Dr. Judson Custer



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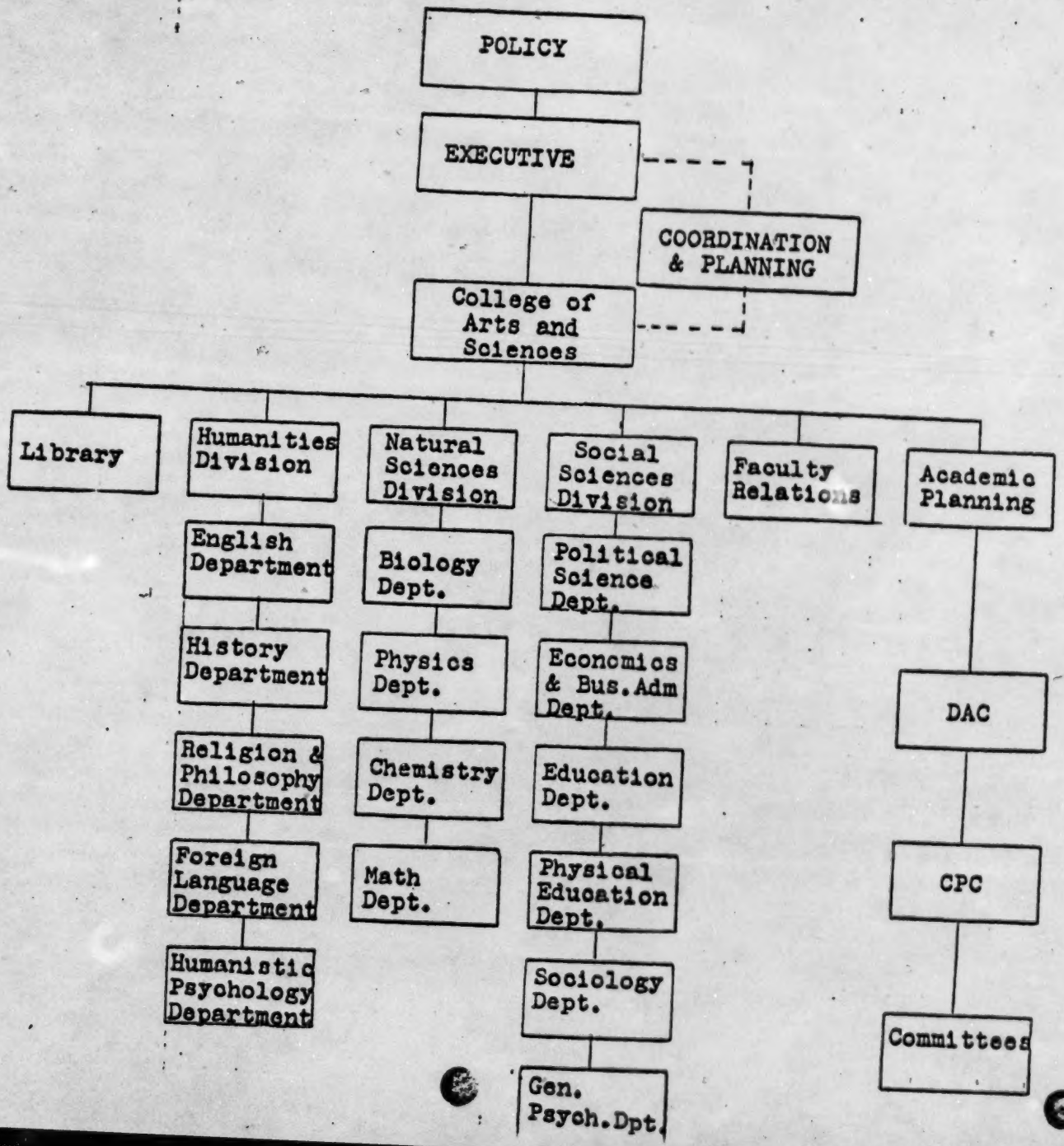
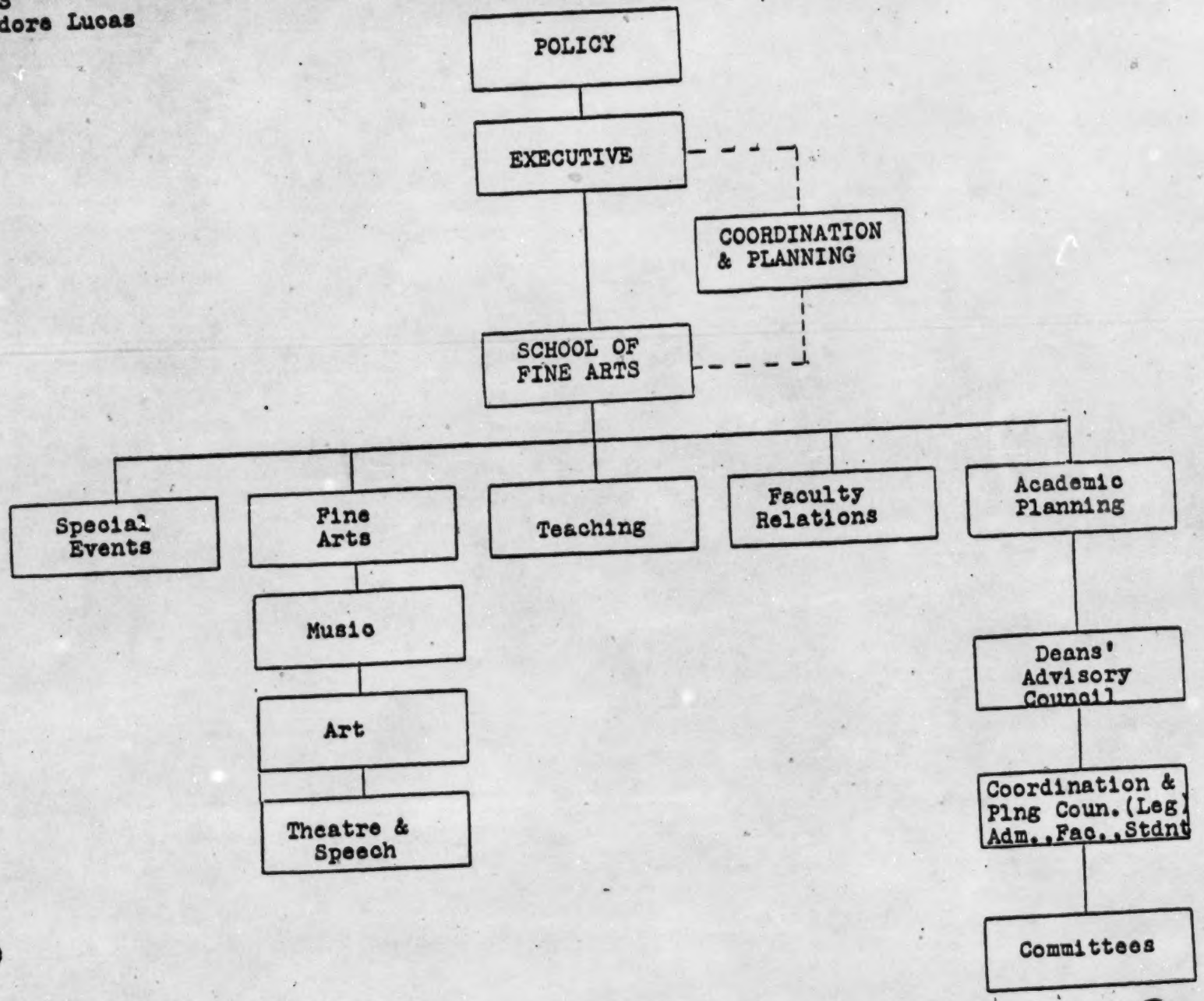
Dr. Benjamin Oliver



FINE ARTS
Dr. Theodore Lucas



JUL 16 1979

Kirk Treible
Vice President for Fiscal Affairs

July 10, 1979

Dr. Ellis Ivey II
West Virginia Wesleyan College
Buckhannon, West Virginia 26201

Dear Ellis:

Thanks so much for your letter of July 2. You know we always enjoy hearing from you.

Your project seems to be moving along well and you know that if we can be helpful to you we will be happty to do that. There is no question that another questionaire is something that we would delight in filling out so if you do decide to send it our way, don't hesitate.

I appreciate your comments on Alaskan Pacific. Southwestern is becoming more and more involved in their program and I believe that West Virginia Wesleyan might find a natural tie if they chose to explore it.

The Energy Conservation write-up which you did for the National Association of College and University Business Officers bore great fruit. Southwestern was recognized along with thirty other institutions with a cash award. I enjoyed going to Atlanta to pick up the check and as you would guess, I particularly enjoyed the recognition. Enclosed is the brochure which the National Association printed which outlined Southwestern's project and delineates your writing skill.

Give our very warmest wishes to Mary Click and our deepest sympathy. You know that we care very much about Mary and her well being. I know that the loss of her mother is a tragic one for her. I am sure that the great faith that she has and the solid character which is hers will bear her through what is a difficult period.

We send our best wishes to all of our good friends at Wesleyan and hope that you are enjoying a good summer.

Most Sincerely,

KT:ns

ENERGY CONSERVATION PROGRAM
Southwestern University

A new energy management system, consisting of both technological and managerial elements, was adopted at Southwestern University. Installation of a gas and electricity consumption computerized monitor did not have much effect. Rather, the university found that new management techniques were the cause for a dramatic reduction in energy consumption.

Three basic steps were taken to effect an energy savings of over $160,000 last year. First a campus instruments technician was hired to help keep all the elements of the campus energy system tuned for maximum efficiency.

Secondly, the university systematically utilized experimentation with energy sources. Until campus personnel became more familiar with the computer and can develop more sophisticated computer programming, the manual override feature of the computer allows personnel to experiment with the reduction of energy sources.

Finally, the university reduced levels of illumination. This was done either by placing "dummy" fluorescent bulbs in every fifth socket, by removing certain lights, or by charging outsiders a fee related to potential energy consumption by their use of campus facilities.

(NOTE: The statement above appeared in a brochure published by the National Association of College and University Business Officers.)

SEP 17 1979

William B. Jones
Administrative Vice President and Provost

September 14, 1979

Dr. Ellis Ivey
Department of Education
West Virginia Wesleyan College
Buckhannon, West Virginia 26201

Dear Ellis:

I have just received a copy of your report with the personal letter enclosed. Thank you for both. I have looked over the document hastily before going to the regular Cabinet Meeting. It's 11:15 a.m. and the Cabinet still meets every Thursday noon. I will share the document with the members. I shall read it carefully some evening.

School is off to a good start. We have an enrollment of about 1,000 this semester, almost 40 above what we had last year at this time. McCullough Hall has been completed, a new parking area has been created in front of the main women's dorm, and West Gymnasium (the old gym) is undergoing renovation.

I have used your administrative flow charts several times to good effect this year. Glada Munt (women's coach) used them for an administrative course she took at The University of Texas this past summer and I distributed them to new faculty members several weeks ago. Our new legislative set-up modified the council structure but didn't change the administrative set-up. So we're still organized the way your charts describe us.

Hope you are getting along well and that the Texan has readjusted to West Virginia successfully.

Cordially yours,

Bill

WBJ:psa

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